
A Plan for Effective School Leadership

According to an old proverb, "A vision without a plan is just a dream. A plan without a vision is just drudgery. But a vision with a plan can change the world." In the first six chapters of this book, we presented the rationale for and the results of our meta-analysis and our factor analysis. Our meta-analysis resulted in the identification of 21 responsibilities that define the role of a school leader. Our factor analysis resulted in the realization that leadership is different depending on whether a school is engaged in first-order change or second-order change. Finally, we found that the work of Richard Elmore added an important explanatory dimension to our findings. His conclusion that identifying the right work is critical to the success of a school helps us understand the conditions that mediate the impact of school leadership.

All these findings help us better understand school leadership. However, in isolation they do not constitute a plan—a set of coordinated actions that a school leader can take to enhance the achievement of students in schools. In this chapter, we attempt to do just that—organize our findings and conclusions into a plan of action that will help any school leader articulate and realize a powerful vision for enhanced achievement of students.

Our proposed plan involves five steps:

1. Develop a strong school leadership team
2. Distribute some responsibilities throughout the leadership team
3. Select the right work.
4. Identify the order of magnitude implied by the selected work
5. Match the management style to the order of magnitude of the change initiative

Step 1: Develop a Strong School Leadership Team

One of the findings from our meta-analysis is that 21 responsibilities characterize the job of an effective school leader. Although this list appears inordinately long, it is not; other researchers who have synthesized the research on leadership have identified equally long lists. Recall from the discussion in Chapter 2 that Cotton (2003) identified 25 responsibilities much like ours. We believe that anyone who attempts to synthesize the research on school leadership will have similar results. In short, our research and that of others validates the conclusion that leading a school requires a complex array of skills. However, the validity of this conclusion creates a logical problem because it would be rare, indeed, to find a single individual who has the capacity or will to master such a complex array of skills. How does one reconcile the fact that effective school leadership requires 21 responsibilities but that the mastery of all 21 is beyond the capacity of most people? Taken at face value, this situation would imply that only those with superhuman abilities or the willingness to expend superhuman effort could qualify as effective school leaders.

Fortunately, a solution exists if the focus of school leadership shifts from a single individual to a team of individuals. If school leadership is the responsibility of a leadership team within a school as opposed to the principal acting as lone leader, all 21 responsibilities can be adequately addressed. As we saw in Chapter 2, a variety of theorists (such as Elmore, Fullan, and Spillane) have addressed this concept of shared leadership directly and indirectly in a variety of theories. For us, it is the concept of a *purposeful community* that provides guidance as to how a leadership team might best be developed and maintained. Specifically, we believe that a strong leadership team is the natural outgrowth of a purposeful community. In other words, crafting the school into a purposeful community is a necessary condition for the design of an effective leadership team.

Crafting a Purposeful Community

We define a purposeful community as *one with the collective efficacy and capability to develop and use assets to accomplish goals that matter to all community members through agreed-upon processes*. Four important concepts are embedded in this definition. First is the concept of *collective efficacy*, which is group members' shared perception or belief that they can dramatically enhance the effectiveness of an organization. According to Goddard, Hoy, and Hoy (2004), the collective efficacy of the teachers in a school is a better predictor of student success in schools than is the socioeconomic status of the students. In simple terms, collective efficacy is the shared belief that "we can make a difference."

The second concept important to our definition of a purposeful community is *the development and use of all available assets*. Assets can be tangible or intangible (Kaplan & Norton, 2004). Tangible assets include financial and physical resources, the number of personnel in a school and the talents they bring, technology, and access to information. Intangible assets involve a shared vision, shared assumptions about what is important within the school, and shared ideals and beliefs about the core mission of the school.

The third concept important to the definition of a purposeful community is that it *accomplishes goals that matter to all community members*. Communities come in many types and forms. Purposeful communities are distinguished from "accidental communities" by their strong, well-articulated reasons for existing. They are not a product of serendipity; rather, members decide whether they wish to be part of the community. This is not a new idea; it has been well defined within discussions of "intentional communities." For example, in *Making the Grade*, Wagner (2002) writes:

Historically, most communities were created by accident. They were usually the result of some physical proximity or immediate shared need. Sometimes they furthered the goals and growth and development of their members, sometimes they didn't—as any long-time resident of a small town will tell you. By contrast, an "intentional community" is created for a purpose. In fact, the term "intentional community" was first widely used to describe efforts of the nineteenth-century utopians to create communities whose goal was the intellectual and spiritual growth of its members (pp. 148–149).

The fourth concept important to our definition of a purposeful community is *agreed-upon processes*. These are processes that enhance communication among community members, provide for efficient reconciliation of disagreements, and keep the members attuned to the current status of the community.

These four elements provide a template for the actions that the school leader must take. More pointedly, of the 21 responsibilities, the school leader must execute certain ones to develop a purposeful community from which a strong leadership team can be constructed. We believe that at least 9 of the 21 responsibilities are necessarily the purview of the principal and are the foundations for establishing a purposeful community. The 9 responsibilities are the following:

- Optimizer
- Affirmation
- Ideals/Beliefs
- Visibility
- Situational Awareness

- Relationships
- Communication
- Culture
- Input

Each of the four critical aspects of a purposeful community is dependent on the school leader's effective execution of one or more of these 9 responsibilities

To create the *collective efficacy* that typifies a purposeful community, the school leader must effectively execute the responsibilities of Optimizer and Affirmation. The principal must be the champion (Optimizer) for the belief that the staff operating as a cohesive group can effect substantive change. Unfortunately, a number of researchers and theorists believe that school faculties do not typically operate from the shared belief that as a group they can make a difference (DuFour, 1998, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2004). Rather, teachers tend to operate from the perspective that their contribution to student learning is more a function of their individual efforts than the collective efforts of the staff. Given these isolationist tendencies, it is the job of the school leader to foster a belief in the power of collective efficacy. Sergiovanni (2004) refers to this shift in perspective as developing a "community of hope."

In specific terms, the principal might begin the school year with a thoughtful dialogue regarding the importance of a team approach to schooling, providing examples that illustrate the power of operating as a team. In recent years, Collins's (2001) book *Good to Great*, about companies that have not only endured economic hard times but prospered, has captured the attention of educators throughout the country. His concept of "getting the right people on the bus" fits nicely into a discussion of the power of collective efficacy. For Collins, the bus is a metaphor for the organization—in this case, the school. The "right people" is a metaphor for a group of like-minded individuals who are willing to subsume their personal ambitions under the common good of the institution.

Sergiovanni (2004) reminds us that the belief in collective efficacy must be backed up by fact—evidence that it works. The school leader accomplishes this by executing the responsibility of Affirmation—recognizing and celebrating the legitimate successes of individuals within the school and the school as a whole. Such acknowledgment provides evidence to the faculty that their efforts are producing tangible results. To do this, the principal might devote a portion of each faculty meeting to acknowledging accomplishments of the school as a whole and individuals working toward the common good of enhanced student achievement.

The second concept critical to a purposeful community is the *development and use of available assets*. As mentioned, assets can be tangible or intangible. The tangible assets such as books and equipment can be addressed effectively by the leadership team in the execution of the responsibility of Resources (We suggest how the leadership team might do this in Step 2; see Figure 7.1, pp 108–109.) However, the development of intangible assets such as shared visions, shared assumptions, and shared ideals is a by-product of actions by the principal. Such actions are exhibited when the principal executes the responsibility of Ideals/Beliefs. Ideals/Beliefs might be one of the more difficult responsibilities for the school leader to execute. Recall from the discussion in Chapter 4 that disclosing one's ideals and beliefs is a very intimate act (De Pree, 1989). Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002) contend that such willingness to self-disclose is a critical component of emotional intelligence.

Carrying out the responsibility of Ideals/Beliefs, the school leader might articulate his ideals and beliefs about the nature and purpose of schooling and invite teachers to share theirs, in an attempt to identify commonalities. In K–12 schools, such commonalities should be easy to come by because teachers and administrators probably share common reasons for entering the teaching profession, many of which deal with making a positive difference in the lives of others. When consciously operating from these “higher” principles, human beings are willing to expend vast amounts of energy and experience a heightened sense of satisfaction when doing so (Bandura, 1997; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Harter, 1999).

The third defining characteristic of a purposeful community is that it *accomplishes goals that matter to all community members*. The critical phrase here is “all community members.” The driving force behind this concept is that all the members of the school staff believe that their day-to-day efforts serve common goals. Certainly the discussions regarding shared ideals and beliefs will go a long way to this end. However, in the complex swirl of activity that characterizes the day-to-day life of most schools, even the most meaningful discussions are easily forgotten. It is up to the building principal to keep the common goals articulated in those discussions alive for all staff members. The principal does so through actions, not words. Specifically, five responsibilities are involved in this aspect of a purposeful community: Visibility, Situational Awareness, Relationships, Communication, and Culture.

Visibility requires the principal to have frequent contact with teachers and students. These contacts would typically be evident as informal and unscheduled encounters as the principal walks through the building observing classes in

progress, chatting with teachers and students, and observing sports events and other extracurricular activities. The principal's strong presence communicates that administration and staff are a team working together in all aspects of the school.

Situational Awareness refers to the principal's awareness of the details and undercurrents of running the school. Obviously, effective execution of the responsibility of Visibility will make it easier to execute Situational Awareness. As part of creating a purposeful community, Situational Awareness involves knowing the positive and negative dynamics that occur between individuals in the school, and using this information to forecast and head off potential problems. For example, the principal might become aware that a certain teacher or a certain group of teachers feels disenfranchised. Rather than wait for these feelings to show themselves in a negative manner, the principal would meet with the teacher or teachers, inviting them to discuss their issues openly.

The responsibility of Relationships might be considered to be the bedrock of the principal's efforts to establish a purposeful community. Along with an awareness of specifics of the professional lives of faculty and staff in a building, the principal should be aware of their personal lives, appropriately commenting on and reacting to critical events.

The responsibility of Culture involves the creation of a cooperative environment among staff within the context of a shared sense of purpose. Certainly the execution of the other responsibilities will contribute to establishing an appropriate culture. However, the principal should take overt action to this end. Schmoker (2001) proposes the simple device of bimonthly or monthly meetings at which teachers who are responsible for common subject areas, grade levels, or both meet to discuss instructional issues. One standing issue at all these meetings would be the level of consistency between the school's actual operations and its espoused ideals and beliefs.

The fourth defining feature of a purposeful community is *agreed-upon processes*. As stated earlier, these processes enhance communication among members of the community, provide for efficient reconciliation of disagreements, and make apparent the health (or lack thereof) of the community. The effective execution of the responsibility of Input addresses these issues. Recall from Chapter 4 that Input involves ensuring that all staff members in the school have a voice in the running of the school. At one level, input can be directly to the principal. A vehicle for this might be a standing open-door policy that gives every faculty member ready access to the principal. At a more formal level, the principal might schedule systematic

meetings with every faculty member to seek out suggestions on how the school might be run more effectively. Additionally, each faculty meeting might include time for staff members to identify areas of concern regarding the running of the school.

Although these various actions are labor intensive, they are probably preconditions for a purposeful community, which itself is a precondition for a strong leadership team.

Setting Up and Maintaining a Leadership Team

A school will probably never reach a point at which people can stop working toward a purposeful community. To use a well-worn phrase, a purposeful community is more of a journey than it is a destination. Consequently, the school leader can begin setting up a leadership team in concert with the crafting of a purposeful community. There are no hard-and-fast rules for designing a leadership team. However, experience has shown us that at least two generalizations seem to apply to a well-functioning leadership team.

The first is that the members of the leadership team should be volunteers. This means that membership should not be based on some form of rotation wherein each staff member must serve a certain period of time. No doubt, membership on the team will require extra work and extra energy. The only way that this effort can be expected of leadership team members is if they volunteer their services because of their extraordinary commitment to the effective functioning of the school. One way of thinking of the leadership team, then, is that it is a group of individuals highly committed to the general well-being of the school. Members share a "culture of commitment" regarding the school. This is not to say that individuals who fail to volunteer for service on the team are uncommitted. Rather, individuals might not volunteer simply because they have issues outside school that are priorities at a given point in time. Every educator experiences times when professional life must take a backseat to personal life. Most likely the leadership team will be populated by individuals whose professional life is one of their highest priorities—at least for the time being.

The second generalization regarding the leadership team is that it is important to establish strong operating principles and agreements. A leadership team will have a "way of working together" that will develop as a function of serendipity or design. Strong operating principles help ensure that the way the team works together is productive, not destructive. A team's operating principles should be what the team turns to when the predictable conflict associated with change (particularly

second-order change) occurs. Accordingly, operating principles should be broad and powerful statements that reflect values, or "truths," that transcend the differences that can divide groups in times of stress or conflict. The following are some operating principles we have found to be particularly powerful.

- **Significance.** We address "questions that matter," leading to a deep and broad positive impact on learning and practice. We continually review new and existing work against our goals and emerging issues so that we focus our resources appropriately.

- **Quality.** Our work and our approach exemplify the highest professional standards, withstanding critical scrutiny and exhibiting state-of-the-art practice. We review our work and hold ourselves accountable for our processes and results, striving for continuous improvement.

- **Responsibility.** We operate for the public good and are accountable for our work, the way in which we conduct it, and our interactions with each other. Our ultimate goal is to identify, develop, and share information and techniques that improve student learning. We assess our work and welcome direct and honest feedback so we can learn, grow, and remain relevant to those we serve.

- **Integrity.** We strive to create and maintain an environment of trust, respect, and common values. We treat each other and those we serve with fairness and respect. What we say and do supports who we aspire to be and what we have set out to accomplish.

- **Ethics.** Our work and our approach reflect fair, just, and compassionate understanding and insight. This results in opportunities for success for all children and those who serve them, regardless of race, culture, location, socioeconomic status, or discipline.

- **Openness.** Our decision-making process is transparent to both internal and external audiences. This means that faculty, staff, and the community we serve have an opportunity to understand how we make decisions and learn what decisions were made. To expand the base of knowledge in education, we regularly communicate key knowledge and learning to internal and external audiences.

Along with identifying operating principles, the leadership team must formalize agreements among team members to make the principles operational. These agreements should be commitments that team members make to one another describing the behaviors that staff members who are not on the team will be able to observe in day-to-day interactions. One of the agreements should address the importance of team members holding each other accountable for honoring their agreements.

Step 2: Distribute Some Responsibilities Throughout the Leadership Team

With a leadership team established, the next step is to distribute the 12 responsibilities throughout the leadership team. This is not to say that the principal should exclude himself from the execution of these responsibilities. Rather, these remaining 12 can be considered the joint work of the leadership team, with the principal functioning as a key member of that team. Here we describe how the leadership team might address a few of the 12 distributed responsibilities.

Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment involves the acquisition and cultivation of knowledge regarding best practices in curriculum, instruction, and assessment. It seems reasonable that a team of committed people can address this responsibility more effectively than any one individual. For example, different members of the leadership team might be responsible for reading the current research and theory on different topics. Some team members might focus on curriculum, others on instruction, and others on assessment. The building principal operating as a member of the team would select one of these topics, but it would be the collective efforts of the team that would address this responsibility in a comprehensive manner.

As described in Chapter 4, whereas Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment focuses on the acquisition of knowledge, Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment involves hands-on interactions with teachers. This responsibility manifests itself as direct involvement in day-to-day classroom practice. Again, the leadership team would distribute the work involved in executing this responsibility, with some members focusing on providing support and guidance for classroom teachers who want help with curricular issues, others focusing on instruction, and others focusing on assessment.

Flexibility refers to the ability and willingness to adapt leadership style to the needs of the current situation. One of the defining features of this responsibility is the ability to maintain what is referred to as the "balcony view" of an organization (Heifetz & Laurie, 2001; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002a). Heifetz and Linsky (2002b) explain the dynamics of the balcony view in the following way:

Get off the dance floor and onto the balcony. Leadership is improvisational. It cannot be scripted. On one hand, to be effective a leader must respond in the moment to what is happening. On the other hand, the leader must be able to step back out of the moment and assess what is happening from a wider perspective. We call it getting off the dance floor and onto the balcony. It may be an original metaphor, but it's not an original idea. For centuries religious traditions have taught disciplines that enable a person to reflect in action. Jesuits call it *contemplation* in action. Hindus call it *Karma*.

Yoga We call it *getting onto the balcony* because that's a metaphor people can easily relate to. But it's critically important, and the reason why religious traditions have talked about it for so long is that it's hard to do. It's hard, in the midst of action, to step back and ask yourself: What's really going on here? Who are the key parties to this problem? What are the stakes they bring to this issue? How will progress require us all to reevaluate our stakes and change some of our ways? (pp. 4–5)

Heifetz and Linsky further emphasize that the balcony view is difficult for individuals to achieve, as they imply by their many references to religious traditions. As a committed group, however, the leadership team is well equipped to achieve this perspective. Specifically, the leadership team might periodically ask questions such as these: What are the most critical issues currently facing us? What are our biggest weaknesses? What are our biggest strengths? What is the next best action to take as a leadership team? In some cases the leadership team might conclude that they must adopt a more open stance relative to the concerns of the staff and faculty. In other cases they might conclude that they must reaffirm the shared ideals and beliefs that underpin the school's efforts. In still other situations, the team might conclude that for the time being they should simply allow a certain amount of unrest to occur.

In short, 12 of the 21 responsibilities can be effectively distributed throughout the leadership team. Figure 7.1 on pp. 108–109 lists some actions the leadership team might take for each of the 12 distributed responsibilities.

Step 3: Select the Right Work

In Chapter 6 we considered the importance of a school's selecting the right work. The school leader might do a good job of crafting a purposeful community, out of which a strong leadership team arises; but if the school under the direction of the leadership team does not select work that has a high probability of enhancing student achievement, the hard work of the principal, the leadership team, and the school as a whole will be for naught—at least in terms of student academic achievement. A metaphor for the importance of this step might be a sailing vessel charged with the task of visiting ports of call that are interesting and instructive to the tourists on board. The captain of the ship might do well at assembling a fine crew and distributing the many chores aboard the ship. If the captain and crew select the wrong destinations given their charge, however, their work will not produce the desired result.

In schools, the “desired result” typically deals with student academic achievement. In Chapter 6 we identified 39 action steps that might be considered the right work in a given school. Figure 7.2, pp. 110–111, reviews these 39 action steps.

FIGURE 7.1
Distributed Responsibilities and Actions of the Leadership Team

Responsibility	Actions of the Leadership Team
Monitoring/Evaluating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide feedback on classroom practices and student learning through multiple strategies (e.g. lesson study, student work observations, and team planning) • Ensure that the aligned and intended curriculum is taught (e.g. through observations, team planning, and student work).
Knowledge of Curriculum Instruction and Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensure that professional development is focused on agreed-upon instructional and assessment practices within the intended curriculum • Assess knowledge needed and acquired using informal methods (e.g., observation, surveys, student work, needs assessment).
Involvement in Curriculum Instruction and Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Develop and model techniques for effective lesson design that include (1) how to effectively communicate learning goals, (2) how to help students acquire and integrate their knowledge (3) how to help students practice and review knowledge and (4) how to determine if students have learned the knowledge.
Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adopt common agreements regarding student expectations and effort required to meet the established goals • Communicate goals to staff and formally and informally keep them in the forefront of the conversations about student achievement.
Intellectual Stimulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use study groups demonstrated through a leadership team 'fishbowl' to stimulate inquiry and reflection on the research around the focused goals. • Use language with peers that demonstrates knowledge of and respect for research on student learning.
Flexibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respond to issues and concerns raised by staff in a direct open and transparent manner. • Develop mechanisms to support teachers through the change process. • Examine leadership team practices and make necessary changes. • Support the principal when situations require a more directive style of leadership.
Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allocate resources based on instructional priorities. Be transparent in this work • Determine annual priorities for faculty learning • Provide staff development opportunities that are coordinated with the school's focus and mission.
Contingent Rewards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Support the implementation of policies and practices that are performance-based as opposed to seniority-based • Recognize both formally and informally those whose work is congruent with the stated purpose and goals of the school.
Outreach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicate positively with the community about the school • Engage parents in activities that are meaningful and relevant to them

FIGURE 7.1 (continued)
Distributed Responsibilities and Actions of the Leadership Team

Responsibility	Actions of the Leadership Team
Outreach (continued)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Collect data regarding parent and community attitudes toward the school. Analyze results and design appropriate programs. • Promote the school's accomplishments through the media and central administration.
Discipline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish agreed-upon policies and procedures for scheduling practices that do not interrupt instructional time. • Establish routines for communication that minimize or eliminate interruptions and distractions to classroom instruction.
Change Agent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Model a "can do" attitude; formulate agreements about supporting initiatives, such as "no badmouthing the change." • Analyze change initiatives to determine implications for different stakeholders. • Lead structured dialogues to ascertain peoples' underlying assumptions, values, and beliefs. • Provide data that create sustained tension between what is and what could be. • Assess the magnitude of a change and identify levels of comfort and discomfort.
Order	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Help the principal execute routines and procedures. • Identify ways to improve the effectiveness and utility of established routines and procedures.

To identify the right work in a school, the 39 questions in Figure 7.2 might be posed to the entire faculty. To this end, the model from *What Works in Schools* (Marzano, 2003) involves an online survey that allows teachers within a building to respond to multiple items for each of the 39 action steps. Through 2004, more than 2,000 schools have administered the survey to staff members. For each item, teachers and administrators answer the following questions:

- To what extent do we engage in this behavior or address this issue?
- How much will a change in our practice on this item increase the academic achievement of our students?
- How much effort will it take to significantly change our practices regarding this issue?

The first question deals with how well the school is doing relative to the action steps. The second question deals with how much student achievement will be enhanced if the school improves on the issue addressed in the item. We consider

FIGURE 7.2
A Model for Identifying the "Right Work"

Factors		Action Steps <i>Is the next best thing to do in our school to</i>
School-Level	Guaranteed and Viable Curriculum	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1 Identify and communicate the content considered essential for all students versus that considered supplemental? 2 Ensure that the essential content can be addressed in the amount of time available for instruction? 3 Ensure that teachers address the essential content? 4. Protect the instructional time available to teachers?
	Challenging Goals and Effective Feedback	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5 Implement an assessment and record-keeping system that provides timely feedback on specific areas of knowledge and skill for specific students? 6. Establish and monitor specific challenging achievement goals for the school as a whole? 7 Establish and monitor specific challenging achievement goals for each student?
	Parent and Community Involvement	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8 Establish vehicles for communication between schools and parents and the community? 9 Establish multiple ways for parents and community to be involved in the day-to-day running of the school? 10 Establish governance vehicles that allow for the involvement of parents and community members?
	Safe and Orderly Environment	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 11 Establish rules and procedures for behavioral problems that might be caused by the school's physical characteristics or the school's routines? 12 Establish schoolwide rules and procedures for general behavior? 13 Establish and enforce appropriate consequences for violations of rules and procedures? 14 Establish a program that teaches self-discipline and responsibility to students? 15 Establish a system that allows for the early detection of students who have high potential for violence and extreme behaviors?
	Collegiality and Professionalism	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 16 Establish norms of conduct and behavior that engender collegiality and cooperation? 17 Establish governance structures that allow for teacher involvement in decisions and policies for the school? 18. Provide teachers with meaningful staff development activities?
Teacher-Level	Instructional Strategies	19 Provide teachers with an instructional framework for planning units that employs research-based strategies?
	Classroom Management	20 Have teachers articulate and enforce a comprehensive set of classroom rules and procedures?

FIGURE 7.2 (continued)
A Model for Identifying the "Right Work"

Factors		Action Steps <i>Is the next best thing to do in our school to</i>
Teacher-Level	Classroom Management	21 Have teachers use specific strategies that reinforce appropriate behavior and recognize and provide consequences for inappropriate behavior? 22 Institute a schoolwide approach to discipline? 23 Help teachers develop a balance of moderate dominance and moderate cooperation in their dealings with students? 24 Provide teachers with an awareness of the needs of different types of students and ways of alleviating those needs? 25 Have teachers employ specific strategies to maintain or heighten their awareness regarding the actions of students in their classes? 26 Have teachers employ specific strategies that help them maintain a healthy emotional objectivity with their students?
	Classroom Curriculum Design	27 Have teachers identify the important information and skills in the topics they are required to address? 28 Have teachers present new content multiple times using a variety of activities? 29 Have teachers make distinctions between those skills and processes that will be taught to a level of mastery and those that will only be introduced? 30 Have teachers present content in groups or categories that demonstrate the critical features of the content? 31 Have teachers engage students in complex tasks that require addressing content in multiple ways?
Student-Level	Home Environment	32 Provide training and support to parents to enhance their communication with their children about school, their supervision of their children and their ability to communicate expectations to their children within the context of an effective parenting style?
	Learned Intelligence and Background Knowledge	33 Involve students in programs that directly increase the number and quality of life experiences students have? 34 Involve students in a program of wide reading that emphasizes vocabulary development? 35 Provide direct instruction in vocabulary terms and phrases that are important to specific subject matter content?
	Motivation	36 Provide students with feedback on their knowledge gain? 37 Provide students with tasks and activities that are inherently engaging? 38 Provide opportunities for students to construct and work on long-term projects of their own design? 39 Teach students about the dynamics of motivation and how those dynamics affect them?

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the third question in the next section. For now, let's illustrate how the first two questions might be used to identify the right work for a school.

Consider Action Step 2 in Figure 7.2. It deals with whether the content that teachers are expected to address can be adequately taught in the instructional time available to teachers. According to a recent analysis of the responses from the 2,000 schools that have taken the *What Works in Schools* survey (see Marzano, 2005), teachers commonly rate their school's performance on this item very low—they perceive that they do not have sufficient time to adequately address all the content they are expected to teach. Additionally, teachers commonly rate this item high in terms of the extent to which it will enhance student achievement in their schools. It is the confluence of these two response patterns that provides evidence for a school's next best work. Whether the action steps in Figure 7.2 are presented to the faculty as a formal survey or simply as discussion items at a faculty meeting, it should be possible to get a clear view regarding the right work for the school by identifying those items on which the school is not performing well *and* on which improved performance will enhance student academic achievement.

Step 4: Identify the Order of Magnitude Implied by the Selected Work

Step 3 should result in the identification of a specific area of work on which to focus. Ideally, the work identified is the most powerful next action the school can take to enhance the academic achievement of students. With its next work identified, the leadership team would consider the magnitude of change implied. One of the difficult aspects of identifying the magnitude of change for a given initiative is that one person's first-order change might be another's second-order change.

The phenomenon of first- versus second-order change is an internal event. It is defined by the way people react to a proposed innovation. Whether a change is perceived as first order or second order depends on the knowledge, experience, values, and flexibility of the individual or group perceiving the change. Figure 7.3 lists characteristics that typically determine whether an initiative is perceived as a first-order change or a second-order change.

To illustrate the characteristics depicted in Figure 7.3, consider the initiative of moving from a traditional report card to one that is standards-based. Specifically, Action Step 5 in Figure 7.2 addresses the implementation of an assessment and record-keeping system that provides timely feedback on specific types of knowledge and skills for specific students. One manifestation of this action step is a standards-based report card like that depicted in Figure 6.3 (see Chapter 6, p. 85). Depending on how they perceive this change initiative, some staff members will experience

FIGURE 7.3
Characteristics of First-Order Change and Second-Order Change

First-Order Change	Second-Order Change
• Is perceived as an extension of the past	• Is perceived as a break with the past
• Fits within existing paradigms	• Lies outside existing paradigms
• Is consistent with prevailing values and norms	• Conflicts with prevailing values and norms
• Can be implemented with existing knowledge and skills	• Requires the acquisition of new knowledge and skills
• Requires resources currently available to those responsible for implementing the innovations	• Requires resources currently not available to those responsible for implementing the innovations
• May be accepted because of common agreement that the innovation is necessary	• May be resisted because only those who have a broad perspective of the school see the innovation as necessary

the initiative as first-order change and others will experience it as second-order change

The first characteristic listed in Figure 7.3 is the extent to which the proposed change is perceived as an extension of or a break from the past. Perhaps a specific teacher in the school has been experimenting with standards-based ways of reporting to her students for a few semesters or even a few years. Consequently, for her, changing the school report card to one like that depicted in Figure 6.3 is an extension of her experiences—the next logical step. However, for another teacher in the same school who has not been experimenting with new reporting systems, a new report card is not an extension of the past. That teacher would view the new report card as second-order change.

The second characteristic listed in Figure 7.3 is the extent to which the innovation is perceived as fitting within existing paradigms. To illustrate this characteristic, let's consider two other individuals in the school, both of whom are building vice principals. One of the two might perceive that the faculty in the school strongly favors using standards as the guiding force behind not only the school's reporting system but also the design of the curriculum and the type of tests that should be given. Indeed, that vice principal might regularly interact with teachers who hold this point of view. For this vice principal, the new report card fits well within the existing paradigm regarding schooling—it is a first-order change. However, the second vice principal systematically interacts with a group

of teachers who perceive standards as a disruptive force in the functioning of the school and the intellectual freedom of teachers. That vice principal would perceive the new standards-based report card as a dramatic departure from the existing paradigm—a second-order change.

The remaining characteristics listed in Figure 7.3 follow suit. Depending on the characteristics an individual ascribes to an innovation, the individual will perceive the innovation as first or second order in nature. Within one school, different individuals or groups will ascribe different characteristics to an innovation, so that the magnitude of change associated with the innovation is different for various constituent groups in the school. How, then, does the school leader and leadership team ascertain the order of magnitude of the changes being proposed? We suggest two ways.

The first technique is to determine people's perceptions of how difficult it would be to implement the innovation. It makes intuitive sense that change initiatives that are perceived as second order will be thought of as more difficult than change initiatives that are first order in nature. This is where the third question in the *What Works in Schools* survey is of use. It asks: How much effort will it take to significantly change our practices regarding this issue? For faculty members who indicate that a great deal of effort will be required to significantly change the schools' practices, the innovation is most likely second order in nature. For those who indicate that little effort will be required, the innovation is most likely first order in nature.

The second technique is more direct; it is a simple extension of the characteristics listed in Figure 7.3. Specifically, the principal and the leadership team can address the following questions regarding the work that has been selected:

- Is the new work a logical and incremental extension of what we have done in the past?
- Does the new work fit within the existing paradigms of teachers and administrators?
- Is the new work consistent with prevailing values and norms?
- Can the innovations be implemented with the knowledge and skills that exist among the faculty and administrators?
- Can the innovations be implemented with resources that are easily available?
- Is there common agreement that the innovation is necessary?

If the principal and leadership team conclude that most of the staff would answer no to most of these questions, they have good evidence that the new work that has been selected is second order in magnitude.

Step 5: Match the Management Style to the Order of Magnitude of the Change Initiative

As a result of Step 4, the leadership team and the principal should have a fairly good indication of whether their new work is first order or second order in magnitude. As we have seen, leadership looks quite different for first-order versus second-order initiatives.

Managing First-Order Change

First-order change requires attention to all 21 responsibilities. As described in Step 1, the school principal must address at least nine of these responsibilities simply to craft a purposeful community. Again, these responsibilities are the following:

- Optimizer
- Affirmation
- Ideals/Beliefs
- Situational Awareness
- Visibility
- Relationships
- Communication
- Culture
- Input

The school leader must persist in effectively executing these nine responsibilities not only to nurture a purposeful community but also to support first-order change initiatives. This does not mean that the leadership team cannot participate in the effective execution of these responsibilities as a way of supporting the principal.

To illustrate how the leadership team might provide such support, let's briefly consider a few of the responsibilities. Recall from the discussion of Step 1 that the building principal executes the responsibility of Optimizer by being a champion for the belief that the staff operating as a cohesive group can produce powerful results. The leadership team might support this responsibility by identifying tasks that capitalize on the strengths of faculty members. To carry out the responsibility of Affirmation, the building principal might devote a portion of each faculty meeting to acknowledging the accomplishments of the school as a whole as well as individuals within the school. In support of this, the leadership team might systematically gather examples of these collective and individual accomplishments so that the principal will have a readily available list of examples. In short, the leadership team can

provide concrete support for each of the nine responsibilities that pertain specifically to the principal. Figure 7.4 lists some other ways the leadership team might help the principal execute these responsibilities.

In addition to supporting the principal's responsibilities, the leadership team should continually attend to the 12 distributed responsibilities (see Figure 7.1, p. 108). In short, first-order change initiatives require attention to all 21 responsibilities. As discussed in Chapter 5, they are necessary ingredients in the day-to-day operations of a school.

Managing Second-Order Change

Second-order change requires a different approach to leadership. Recall from the discussion in Chapter 5 that seven responsibilities seem to be critical to effective leadership for second-order change. They are the following:

- Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment
- Optimizer
- Intellectual Stimulation
- Change Agent
- Monitoring/Evaluating
- Flexibility
- Ideals/Beliefs

These are defined somewhat differently in second-order change situations than they are in first-order situations.

Within first-order change situations, Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment refers to an understanding of best practices regarding curriculum, instruction, and assessment. Within second-order change, this responsibility involves an understanding of how the selected change initiative will affect current practices in curriculum, instruction, and assessment. For example, assume that a school has decided to institute a standards-based report card. Additionally, the leadership team has determined that the staff perceives the initiative as second order in magnitude. To effectively execute this responsibility, the school leader would carefully study how the new report card would affect the current curriculum. One thing she might discover is that the current curriculum, which consists of course outlines, provides teachers with wide latitude in the course content they may include and exclude. Implementation of a standards-based report card will greatly diminish this latitude. Because teachers will have to report on students' progress in certain areas of knowledge and skill, they will certainly have to address those areas of knowledge and skill in their classes. In effect, the new report card will standardize the curriculum and influence how every classroom teacher executes instruction and

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FIGURE 7.4
Leadership Team Actions Supporting the Nine Responsibilities of a Principal

Responsibility	Actions of the Leadership Team
Optimizer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Focus on staff strengths and help arrange work so that strengths are matched with tasks Celebrate successes. Use data to illustrate progress toward goals.
Affirmation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Develop structures that regularly recognize and celebrate accomplishments Take time in staff meetings to share and celebrate individual and school-wide learning (successes and failures) Communicate student successes to parents and the community.
Ideals/Beliefs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Forge shared agreements around the mission vision, and purpose of the school. Help turn the adopted beliefs into observable behaviors Lead in the writing of instructional philosophies by content area Ask strategic questions about times when actions do not reflect agreed-upon purposes, goals, and agreements.
Situational Awareness	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Keep the principal informed about perceptions from within the school and from the community the school serves.
Visibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Support the principal in efforts to be visible; invite the principal into the classroom; model the idea of being comfortable with the principal in the classroom; ask the principal to work with groups of students regularly Remain highly visible around the school and encourage frequent contact with students both in and outside of the classroom.
Relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Work hand in hand with the principal in acknowledging professional accomplishments of staff; celebrate the awarding of advanced degrees professional honors and so on Recognize significant events in the lives of staff, such as birthdays, marriages and births Promote a caring culture and procedures that support staff in facing personal challenges and meeting obligations outside of school such as those related to families and children.
Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Help develop structures that promote the free flow of information with the staff such as daily bulletins, common Web pages, professional sharing during faculty meetings and joint planning time Model constructive disagreement and problem-solving skills. Model positive communication; center conversations on learning.
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Model cooperation and cohesion; be promoters of the desired culture of the building Monitor school climate Lead structured dialogues around the purpose and vision of the school.
Input	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Model giving input in a positive manner. Ask strategic questions about whether decisions and actions are aligned with school goals Actively seek staff input Ensure that all perspectives are addressed

assessment. Understanding the impact the new report card will likely have on curriculum, instruction, and assessment might be critical to developing strategies to ensure the success of this innovation.

Within first-order change situations, the responsibility of Optimizer involves being a generally positive influence in the school. Within a second-order change situation, the role of Optimizer becomes more focused and intense. The school leader must be willing to be the driving force behind the change initiative and take a stand for its success. For example, relative to a standards-based report card, the school leader would systematically highlight the potential benefits of the new report card. Additionally, she would make it clear that she will do everything in her power to ensure the successful implementation of the new report cards.

Intellectual Stimulation within the context of first-order change involves fostering a knowledge of research and theory on best practices among the staff through reading and discussion. Again, within first-order change the emphasis is broad. Within second-order change the focus is on the innovation being implemented. In this case, reading and discussion would focus on standards-based report cards. The general thrust of this responsibility within second-order change is to stimulate the intellectual curiosity of faculty regarding the innovation.

The importance of the responsibility of Change Agent to second-order change is almost self-evident. In first-order change situations, this responsibility is centered on challenging unexamined school practices that have been in place for a long time. The intent is to generate new ideas for future consideration. Within second-order change situations, the responsibility of Change Agent shifts its emphasis to inspiring faculty and staff to operate at the edge of their competence. This shift in focus is necessary because by definition the school has undertaken a change initiative that will require teachers and administrators to perform at their best.

The responsibility of Monitoring/Evaluating in first-order change situations involves keeping track of students at a general level. If achievement trends indicate that students are not learning, adjustments are made in curriculum, instruction, and assessment. In second-order change situations, this responsibility involves a careful monitoring of the effects of the innovation. In the case of the standards-based report card, this would include examining the effects of the new report card on student learning along with the effects on classroom practices.

Like the responsibility of Change Agent, the importance of the responsibility of Flexibility to second-order change is fairly obvious. Given the uncertainty associated with second-order change initiatives, it is vital that the school leader adapt her leadership style to the demands of the current situation. At times the appropriate leadership behavior might be to provide information. At other times it might be to provide inspiration. At still other times the appropriate leadership behavior

might be to offer no input or guidance, allowing dynamics among the faculty to play out on their own

The final responsibility important to second-order change is Ideals/Beliefs. As we saw in Step 1, identifying shared ideals and beliefs regarding the nature and purpose of schooling is critical to establishing a purposeful community. Within second-order change situations, the focus is narrowed in that the leader addresses the extent to which the identified innovation is consistent with shared ideals and beliefs. While in the throes of a second-order change initiative, it is probably easy for faculty and staff to forget that they selected a given initiative because it was in keeping with their ideals and beliefs. A standards-based report card might have been selected because it was a logical consequence of the shared belief that a school should be able to identify specific strengths and weaknesses of every student. While executing the responsibility of Ideals/Beliefs, the school leader would strive to keep this reasoning in the forefront of discussions regarding the initiative.

We have described these examples regarding the seven responsibilities critical to second-order change in terms of the school leader. However, the leadership team can share in the execution of these responsibilities. Figure 7.5 lists some specific steps the team can take relative to these second-order change responsibilities.

As described in Chapter 5, second-order change not only involves emphasizing the seven responsibilities; it also involves the possible perception that things have deteriorated relative to the four responsibilities of Culture, Communication, Order, and Input.

Within the context of first-order change, Culture refers to the creation of a sense of team spirit and a cooperative atmosphere in the running of the school. It is accompanied by the creation and use of a common language regarding teaching, learning, and schooling. In a second-order change environment, some or many staff members may perceive that these elements have deteriorated. For example, if a school is adopting a standards-based report card, some staff members might believe that the initiative has diminished team spirit. Additionally, they might believe that the common language that previously characterized the school has suffered since the introduction of the new terminology of the standards-based report card.

The responsibility of Communication involves developing clear lines of communication to and from faculty members as well as among faculty members. Even though these lines of communication might still be open, during second-order change some faculty members might believe that the innovation has interrupted the flow of information. Those faculty members for whom standards-based report cards are a great departure from their current practice might logically perceive that they have few or no venues for expressing their concerns.

FIGURE 7.5
Leadership Team Responsibilities and Actions Important to Second-Order Change

Responsibility	Actions of the Leadership Team
Knowledge of Curriculum Instruction and Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work individually with staff members regarding implementation of the innovation • Attend staff development opportunities regarding the innovation
Optimizer	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Speak positively about the innovation • Provide examples of other schools that have successfully implemented the innovation • Express a continued belief that the innovation will enhance student achievement • Identify roadblocks and challenges to the innovation
Intellectual Stimulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Include research about the innovation in conversations • Ask questions that cause teachers to be reflective in their practices related to the innovation • Lead discussions around current practices related to the innovation
Change Agent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Raise issues around achievement related to the innovation • Share data related to other schools that have implemented the innovation • Compare where the school is and where it needs to be in terms of implementing the innovation • Demonstrate tolerance for ambiguity regarding the innovation.
Monitoring/Evaluating	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Look at both formative and summative assessments in relation to the innovation • Conduct classroom walk-throughs related to the innovation.
Flexibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continually adjust plans in response to progress and tension • Use situational leadership regarding the innovation • Use protocols that allow for input regarding the innovation without bogging down into endless discussion
Ideals/Beliefs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communicate ideals and beliefs related to the innovation in formal and informal conversations and model through behaviors • Ensure that practices related to the innovation are aligned with shared ideals and beliefs • Ask strategic questions regarding the innovation when actions don't reflect agreed-upon purposes, goals, and understandings

Order involves establishing procedures and routines that provide faculty and students with a sense of predictability. It makes sense that the perception regarding this responsibility could erode in a second-order change situation. The old way of doing things has been disrupted. Even if the "old" report cards were not as useful as the "new" report cards, they were familiar. The unfamiliar typically brings with it a sense of uncertainty.

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Finally, the responsibility of Input will most probably suffer as a result of a second-order change. Whereas faculty and staff once felt that their voices were being heard and heeded, the implementation of the innovation serves for some as evidence that this is no longer the case.

It is important to emphasize the fact that the perceptions regarding these four responsibilities are just that—perceptions. For those who hold these perceptions, however, they are reality.

One approach the school leader can take is to simply ride out the storm—endure the fact that some staff members have become disenfranchised. This suggestion is not without merit. The realization that some faculty members within the school will not be happy about a given second-order change can provide a sense of freedom for a school leader. Rather than try to ensure that all staff members feel comfortable, the school leader can focus on the business of increasing the probability that the change initiative will succeed, recognizing that some discord is inevitable.

A more proactive approach would be for the school leader to charge members of the leadership team with focusing on the responsibilities that are casualties of the second-order initiative. That is, in cases in which the school leader might not be the person best suited to seek out those staff members who perceive that the culture of the school has deteriorated, members of the leadership team can serve as strong proxies. They might meet individually with disenfranchised members of the staff. During these meetings, members of the leadership team might simply listen to the concerns of the staff members with the intent of fully understanding and honoring their concerns. Team members would also ensure that the concerns expressed in these meetings would be communicated in full to the principal. In short, the leadership team can act as goodwill ambassadors for the second-order change initiative and liaisons between the faculty and administration.

Figure 7.6 lists some other actions the leadership team might take regarding these four responsibilities that are frequently the casualties of second-order change.

Summary and Conclusions

This chapter presented a five-step plan for effective school leadership—a plan based on the research and theory discussed in the preceding chapters. The first step involves developing a school leadership team based on the foundation of a purposeful community. The second step distributes 12 of the 21 leadership responsibilities to the members of the leadership team, leaving 9 responsibilities to the school principal. The third step involves considering 39 action steps from the *What Works in Schools* (Marzano, 2003) framework to identify the “right work”

FIGURE 7.6
Second-Order Change: Responsibilities That Suffer and Actions That Help

Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continually remind colleagues of the vision for the initiative and why it is important • Model a 'we're all in this together' attitude • Find points of agreement that can serve as common ground during the implementation of the innovation • In staff meetings, work in small groups generating explicit ideas and connections on how the innovation can advance the shared vision of the school and how it fits the shared purpose • Provide differentiated support for teachers based on their response to the initiative • Create time for staff to discuss the change and its implications.
Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Discuss disagreements and contentions in staff and team meetings • Probe for questions and concerns from colleagues and bring them to the leadership team for resolution • Develop a transition plan with the principal that anticipates various responses and attempts to be proactive • Communicate the transition plan to all stakeholders • Create a unified front: Agree upon a consistent and uniform message • Emphasize the fact that things will stabilize as the innovation becomes better defined and institutionalized.
Order	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Design effective decision-making procedures problem-solving tools, and conflict resolution tools • Model effective mediation strategies • Communicate the fact that the innovation will disrupt the established routine to some extent • Be consistent in using procedures that foster a sense of stability • Take an active role in creating and implementing operational procedures.
Input	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meet frequently with small groups to hear concerns and respond • Actively seek input from staff. • Work to develop ownership rather than buy-in for the initiative • Work with the principal to offer multiple opportunities to discuss the innovation openly and honestly. • Help the staff understand the stages and the implications of changes • Explicitly communicate the ways in which input informs decisions • Be transparent about the difference between decisions and input

for the school. The fourth step involves analyzing the related work to determine if it is a first- or second-order change initiative for the faculty and staff. The fifth step matches the appropriate leadership behaviors to the order of the change implied by the selected work.



G E O R G E T H E O H A R I S

THE SCHOOL LEADERS OUR CHILDREN DESERVE

Seven Keys to Equity, Social Justice,
and School Reform



School Leadership and Social Justice

We can, whenever and wherever we choose, successfully teach all children whose schooling is of interest to us; we already know more than we need to do that; and whether or not we do it must finally depend on how we feel about the fact that we haven't so far

—Ronald Edmonds, "Effective Schools for the Urban Poor"

EDMONDS'S (1979) call to educators presents a specific challenge to school leadership. At its core, this challenge recognizes that not only are schools failing many historically marginalized students but also the causes of that failure are known and remediable. Thus it is a matter of will and commitment, and not some sort of mysterious or elusive process, whether schools will change. In this book I examine principals who answered that call—who saw the host of ways injustice was being perpetuated in their schools, who chose to take up the challenge to ameliorate this, and who were able to make strides to alleviate the inequities. By highlighting the work and perspectives of seven principals, I provide a specific discussion of social justice leadership (SIL) grounded in the lives and words of principals committed to creating more just and equitable schools, in other words, the leadership needed to close the access, opportunity, and achievement gaps—leadership for social justice.

Uncomfortable with decades of unfulfilled promises to many students, the seven principals described herein demonstrated success not only with White middle-class and affluent students, but students from varied racial, socioeconomic, linguistic, ability, and cultural backgrounds. Three elementary and four secondary principals in the Midwest, these seven constituted a loose confederation of like-minded school leaders and met on a number of occasions to share stories and secrets, time-tested strategies for change, continued barriers to their work, and visions for the future. These seven principals, six of them White and one an Asian American, six straight and one an out lesbian, three women and four men, understood that creating a socially just school required looking at everything from playground upkeep to math tracking, from school discipline to the school office, to test scores. All worked at urban schools, but the demographics of their student

bodies ranged dramatically. One school was 99% African American, another 65% white, and the others a mix of native-born and immigrant students. Other than English, Spanish and Hmong were the predominant languages heard in four of these schools, with a smattering of Russian, Vietnamese, Turkish, and Mandarin sprinkled in. While many of the schools could have resembled juvenile detention facilities from the outside, inside the walls were covered with art and student work and the playgrounds had been brightened with colorful paint and new equipment. People entering the school could now be expected to be warmly greeted in the halls and in the office—and no obvious police presence was evident in these urban schools. These felt like schools you would want to be in—not escape from.

These seven principals had come to school leadership from markedly different routes (counseling, neighborhood grocery, education, music), had sharply divergent personalities (extroverted, pensive and unassuming, confrontational, diplomatic), and ran schools facing significantly different challenges. Three had been administrators for more than a decade, while the others were in the early years of their first principal job when they participated in this study. Yet all shared a number of values and practices. All believed that their schools had been failing many students and all knew their schools could do a lot better—that all students were capable of excellence and should be given an education befitting such tremendous potential. All seven were headstrong, often stubborn leaders who came to their schools with a vision for social justice. Yet all realized that schools only succeed through empowered teachers and all had built structures to promote democratic school governance. Painstakingly, they had built leadership teams of teachers, bringing together eager practitioners, committed to meeting the challenge of new practice, and resistant teachers, who had to be cajoled into any sort of change. All seven walked a fine line, critical of the practices of many of their teachers, while still always maintaining that their teachers were the professionals and were most qualified to determine the curriculum and instruction of the school.

These schools devoted hours and hours to professional development—not just the week before school or a day at Halloween but continuing over the years. And often much of the professional development would take place with the entire Staff working together—learning about and analyzing language development and exploring reading acquisition, inquiry-based math, the curriculum, and race. All these principals talked about race—a lot—with teachers and parents, among themselves, in administrative meetings, and in community settings. Refusing to accept that “kids are just mean,” they did not believe that teasing or name-calling was unavoidable in their schools, and they sought to create an environment in which gay-baiting, racial, and gendered slurs were unacceptable in class, on the playground, or in the locker room.

The seven principals opened their offices daily to parents and teachers. They stood outside every day before school, walked the halls, supervised lunch, monitored the playground, played games with children at recess, and often could be

found outside at the end of the day. They attended community meetings and invited parents for pizza in their offices. They visited and called students' homes. They knew that along with having good teachers, the best schools are deeply connected to families—but that many parents felt unwelcome or unsure of their place at school. It was the school's responsibility to bring parents to the table and so the principals labored to find ways to bring families into the school (through talent shows, health clinics, interpreter-facilitated report card conferences, community meetings, school-hosted wakes).

These principals did not hide from the data on their schools. In fact they talked about them; worried over the gaps in school performance along race, class and ability lines; knew the intricacies of their schools' statistics and spoke about them in public. They believed that facing the statistics was essential to the task of accountability and understood the pressures on school leaders to fudge these numbers, or obscure them, because real resources (not to mention public shame) were at stake—and could be lost. But they insisted on talking about it anyway. They were angry about the demands put on schools to fetishize test data as the only important indicator—and they resisted pressure to simply focus on these numbers. They shared many numbers, keeping track of students who had been disciplined or were missing school, of how many had health care and which ones came to school hungry, of how many were failing, of which parents came to school regularly and which seemed reticent, of grade patterns and individual reading levels. All posted significant test score achievements across *all* categories of students, yet fought to avoid the skill-and-drill and teaching to the test that had overtaken the district mandates and many neighboring schools. The process of accountability also necessitated changes in school discipline. Moving away from suspending students and warehousing "naughty" pupils in detention rooms, these schools embraced process-oriented forms of discipline whereby behavior was seen as communicative, students were expected to make amends for their action, and fresh starts were given. In doing so, they increased the amount of time students spent in school while doing away with many of the practices that had previously criminalized disruptive or truant students. Not only did they have fewer students with police records and fewer students suspended from school, they saw serious declines in negative student behavior.

Faced with increasing resource shortages, these principals voiced sustained objections to these shortages while at the same time wrangling money from superintendents and employing creative ways to maximize the money they were given. They held school carnivals and walkathons to raise money for a new playground or science equipment and frequently wrote to small and large entities (local businesses, federal department of education, and private foundations) to obtain more resources for their school. All moved their schools toward inclusive services. In all these schools, students with disabilities were educated with their peers; pull-out and self-contained rooms had been eliminated. A number of these schools had

taught English-language learners in separate classrooms; this too was eliminated and these young people were supported in regular classes and learned English alongside their native-English-speaking peers

All knew principals who had been dismissed for engendering the ire of parents, staff, or the central office and walked a delicate daily balance of promoting change, conversation, coalition, and confrontation. Faced with a phalanx of angry White active parents when the school detracked math, one principal had innumerable meetings with those parents, always making sure to include other historically quiet parents who supported the detracking and the teachers who had spearheaded this change. Another saw that most of the non-White parents did not participate in school activities and started a set of ethnic parent meetings—Black, Latino, and Hmong—that ultimately transformed the formerly-white Parent Teacher Organization and led to a vast majority of the families at the school participating regularly in the life of the school. Yet another, running a middle school, saw a troubling pattern of placement: When students of color and students with disabilities left his school and entered high school, the vast majority were not being placed in a foreign language class in ninth grade. With foreign language as a gatekeeper in terms of college admittance, this principal convened his staff to do something about it.

All were exhausted and had known periods of despair and nihilism in their years of work. They cried, they lost sleep, and their personal relationships suffered. One vomited every morning from feeling an overwhelming responsibility, and four sought out counseling for their exhaustion and despair. Through their struggles, however, they learned about themselves, established new ways to build supportive coalitions, and made time for rejuvenating their spirits. In the years since this group convened, two have left their principalship (one to higher education and one to retirement) and four have moved schools, but all continue to work to actualize the nation's promise to educate each and every child. This is an account of their work and ideas, the barriers they faced, and the strategies they developed.

BARRIERS TO SCHOOL SUCCESS

The principals discussed here worked to realize the nation's promise to all children within a larger context of political and social barriers. The landscape of inequality and inequity in the United States shaped the realities that these seven leaders experienced and that every public educator faces daily.

Poverty

One significant barrier schools face is the economic condition of the United States. Rapp (2002) reports that currently in the United States:

- Between 5% and 10% of the population has 95% of the wealth.
- Middle- and lower-income families are working longer, are more productive, but are earning less than they did in 1990
- Employees have 4–6 weeks less vacation time than that of people in many other industrialized countries but are paid the same

Further, Lyman and Villani (2002) state that according to the Children's Defense Fund, more than 12.1 million children live below the official poverty line, which is calculated based on 1950s patterns of homemaking and family spending that does not adequately account for today's economic realities, particularly the high cost of housing, which means many more children and families are poor whether or not they are officially counted. The Children's Defense Fund additionally reports that more than 9 million children do not have health insurance and the quality or lack of health care is a serious concern. Poverty, as well as lack of health care, pose a serious threat to a child's development, nutrition, early childhood educational activities, and achievement at school (Lyman & Villani, 2002; Payne, 1998). Indeed, at least 1 in 5 students come to school hungry.

Racism

While poverty affects all racial groups, Black and Latino families disproportionately face economic, health, and social challenges—more live in extreme poverty, median income lags behind that of White families, there is less access to health care, fewer pregnant mothers receive prenatal care, and many more boys will spend part of their life in prison (Children's Defense Fund, 2005). Racism—notion of White privilege—is reflected in the often unquestioned and unseen norms of society (Delpit, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Singleton & Linton, 2006; Singleton & Noli, 2001).

The forms of discrimination described above are interwoven in the daily realities of the educational system. In studying the experience of students of color in public schools, Murray and Clark (1990) found eight manifestations of racism: insensitive or hostile acts by students and school staff toward students of color, biased application of harsh sanctions, inequalities in the amount of teacher attention given to students, biased curriculum materials, inequalities in the amount of instructional time provided, biased attitudes toward students, failure to hire educators and school staff of color, and a denial of racist actions by school staff. Many of these manifestations continue to exist today, as students of color have received more significant consequences for the same infractions as White students; Black and Latino students are often suspended for nebulous or attitudinal reasons as opposed to White students, who receive cut-and-dried punishments for drugs or weapons offenses; the teaching force does not reflect the racial and cultural diversity of students; and while progress has been made, culturally responsive

curriculum, instruction, and discipline has not been truly embraced (Children's Defense Fund, 2005)

Differential Educational Opportunities

Racism, as reported by Murray and Clark (1990), is a significant factor contributing to the disparate achievement gap between students of color and their White peers (Delpit, 1995; Ferguson, 1998; Noli, 2002–2003; Singleton & Noli, 2001). This gap relegates many Black, Brown, Asian, and Native children to a second-class education and sentences them to a second-class future. Students of color and low-income students are overrepresented in remedial or lower-level classes, alternative schools, charter schools, and special education. This has produced disparate student achievement. For example, according to the Children's Defense Fund (2005), Black students and low-income students are twice as likely to be retained at least one time throughout their K–12 education, and students of color and low-income students are twice as likely as their White middle-class peers to be suspended. In New York State, while 79% of White fourth graders are performing at grade level, only 51% of Black and Latino students and 54% of low-income students are at grade level (New York State Education Department, 2007). Clearly, race and income are connected to school experiences, access, and opportunity and consequently to student achievement, yet in traditional education circles there has been a tendency to see that as evidence of the difficulties inherent in educating these children, rather than the flaws of the educational practice itself.

Special Education. Race and income are also connected to issues surrounding special education. Students of color and students from low-income families are placed in special education at increased rates as compared to their White and middle-income peers (Carlson & Stephens, 1986; Carpenter, 1992; IDEA Local Implementation by Local Administrators Project & National Alliance of Black School Educators, 2002; Ogbu, 1987; Riester, Pursch, & Skrla, 2002; U.S. Department of Education, 2001). Following from the assumption that certain populations of students are more difficult to educate and thus must be removed from the regular school population, such overrepresentation has enormous consequences rooted in the historic marginalization of people with disabilities (Karagiannis, Stainback, & Stainback, 1996).

For years, students with disabilities have been segregated and denied opportunities to receive the same education as their nondisabled peers. Nearly 50% of students with emotional/behavioral disabilities drop out of school; within 3 years of leaving school, 70% of students with emotional and behavioral disorders will be arrested (U.S. Department of Education, 2001). Only 63% of students with specific learning disabilities and less than 50% of students with cognitive disabilities, autism, or multiple disabilities graduate from high school (U.S. Department

of Education, 2001). In New York State, only 28% of students with disabilities are performing at grade level, and only 50% are educated within a regular education setting for the vast majority of the day. These statistics show an improvement over the previous 10 years, but clearly students with disabilities have received a second-class education and their achievement both at school and beyond has been thwarted.

English-Language Learners. In the past 30 years the number and percentage of English language learners (ELLs) in schools in the United States has risen significantly. The percentage of ELLs has grown from 9% of all students in 1979 to 19% in 2003. It has also been reported that the number of students who speak a language other than English at home has increased by 161% over the same period (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2005). Traditional programming for many of these students has involved removing them from regular education either for a number of years or for substantial periods of time each day. This practice of separately educating ELLs has produced neither academic achievement nor a sense of belonging for these students (Frattura & Capper, 2007; Thomas & Collier, 1997). In keeping with the context of the New York example, 23% of ELLs perform at a proficient level by the time they are scheduled to graduate high school and only 27% of those students graduate in 4 years. As with students with disabilities, the continued separate model of ELL education has resulted in inequitable levels of learning affecting school and post-K-12 futures.

Typical Responses to Disparate Opportunities. There is compelling evidence documenting disparities in opportunity and access as well as sufficient data attesting to the achievement gaps between students who have been historically and are currently marginalized in schools and their more privileged peers. Within this era of standards and accountability, there is increasing pressure to raise the achievement of all students. This pressure results in a host of programs and approaches intended to address those opportunities and achievement gaps. In response, school leaders often make knee-jerk decisions that support, implement, and defend programs, curricular reform, and policies that fly in the face of equity and justice. These efforts are causing a rise in segregated, remedial, or tracked programs; the use of retention; and an alphabet soup of separate or "special" programs that target certain students but never address the core teaching and learning in schools, access to that core, or the climate of the school. While these efforts may be well intentioned, many are repeating the disparate access and achievement outcomes of the past (Reese, 2005). In many ways the reaction to these external accountability pressures heightens the need for leadership that centers school reform around issues of equity, access, and creating a warm and engaging school climate.

SOCIAL JUSTICE LEADERSHIP AS AN EFFECTIVE ALTERNATIVE TO SCHOOL-AS-USUAL

In the face of current realities and despite the struggles that they bring, there are schools that provide exemplary education to their students across areas of school climate, curriculum, instruction, and access. These schools observe significant levels of student achievement across all groups of students; students who have traditionally been excluded from the full benefits of an excellent public school education are thriving, "placing [their schools] in direct academic competition with what are considered the better Anglo-dominated schools" (Scheurich, 1998, p. 452). Despite historic, political, and educational barriers that stand in the way of such work, the accomplishments of these schools and their staff are remarkable in how they raised authentic levels of literacy, connected to families, and engaged teaching staffs in both committing to excellence for all students and learning the skills to realize that.

Researchers often define excluded students as marginalized. Lopez (2001) operationally defines the term *marginalized* as being "often used to describe people, voices, perspectives, identities, and phenomena that have been left out or 'excluded' from the center of dominant society" (p. 417). I use the term to describe individuals who have been labeled as "outsiders" (Lopez, 2001) because of race, class, gender, sexual orientation, language, or ability/disability.

Literature on Social Justice Leadership

A recurrent theme from these schools and from the literature on school change is that exemplary leadership helps both to create the necessity for change and to make change happen (Fullan, 1993, 2001; Grogan, 2002a, 2002b; Theoharis, 2007). More specifically, there are leaders at these schools where traditionally marginalized students are thriving and who come to administration with a commitment to focus their leadership on issues of equity and justice. These leaders have led the intentional transformations to create schools that oppose oppression and suffering by transforming them into models of equity and communities of justice. Scholars and administrators alike have called for "constructive models" (Marshall & Ward, 2004; Theoharis, 2007) of this kind of leadership. In other words, school leaders are interested in asking, What does leadership that transforms schools into more equitable and just places, with an attention to climate and achievement, accomplish? How do leaders achieve the transformation? What knowledge, skills, and dispositions are required? What barriers do leaders encounter? How do leaders sustain themselves and their work in light of the barriers?

A small but growing body of literature on social justice leadership has now emerged. Special issues in academic journals make up a significant portion of this literature (Grogan, 2002a, 2002b; Marshall, 2004; Normore, 2006, 2007; Shoho,

2006; Tillman, Brown, Campbell Jones, & Gonzalez, 2006). Several books and book chapters are also foundational (Frattura & Capper, 2007; Larson & Ovando, 2001; Larson & Murtadha, 2002; Marshall & Oliva, 2006; Pounder, Reitzug, & Young, 2002; Scheurich & Skrla, 2003). Theoretical works examine the meanings of and perspectives on social justice; practical ones discuss how university preparation programs can prepare future leaders to take up such a cause. Empirical studies (Maynes & Sarbit, 2000; Oakes, Quartz, Ryan, & Lipton, 2000; Riester et al., 2002; Scheurich, 1998; Touchton & Acker-Hocevar, 2001) detail the realities and various aspects of school administrators leading schools with elevated percentages of marginalized students achieving at high levels. These studies typically begin with schools that are successful at raising the achievement of marginalized students, and then turn to understanding the leaders of those schools. The schools are the unit of analysis in this research. This is clearly distinct from literature where the unit of analysis is the leader committed to social justice (as in this book). What is missing from this growing body of literature is a discussion and details of concrete models and real school leaders who live out a call to do social justice work (SJJL) in public school. In this volume I seek to supplement the theoretical perspective on SJJL and improving the achievement of marginalized students with analysis of the practical and daily work of principals and administrators in schools.

There is more written on social justice teaching than on SJJL. The literature on social justice teaching focuses on teachers and even families/communities and barely considers the ways in which SJJL is possible through school administration. While the social justice teaching work relates in many ways to the issues involved in SJJL, much of this work sees and has experienced school administration as part of the problem facing this teaching. Additionally, more academic and popular writing focuses on teachers (their realities, struggles, and triumphs)—not all this work resonates with tenets of social justice. However, there is very little scholarly or popular writing on school principals, their realities, their struggles, and their triumphs. This book addresses that lack as well, in that it brings a lens of equity and social justice to the realities of principals.

Defining Social Justice Leadership for This Book

It is important to recognize that defining social justice is not straightforward; there are diverse perspectives on what social justice and SJJL means. Thus, this discussion of social justice and SJJL begins outside the realm of education and school leaders. Rawls (1971) provided a broad framework of social justice. He proposed that two tenets of social justice are grounded in the spirit of equality: (1) All people have rights, so justice requires equality of treatment of all people, and (2) equal opportunity, so justice requires that each and every person must have a fair or equal chance. Rawls went further to frame social justice beyond foundational notions of

equality—while essential, they provide an incomplete framework for social justice. His framework included two more tenets grounded in the spirit of difference or diversity: (1) People are different, so justice requires regarding and treating people as individuals, and (2) in rectifying inequities favor or advantage should be given to more vulnerable and marginalized members of society. Rawls's understanding of social justice builds from the distinction (and tension) between equality and equity. While Rawls was not focused on educational systems, this framing of social justice and the tension between equity and equality provides a broad way to approach SJL.

Freire (1990) articulated the notion that educational systems produce and reproduce oppression. He proposed a challenge that the purpose of education and schooling must be to undo oppression and create schools, systems, and individuals that resist and liberate. Bringing this critical theory foundation to educational administration, Foster (1986) challenged the field of school leadership to focus on the inequities and power that schools create and reproduce. He argued that "leadership must be critically educative; it can not only look at the conditions in which we live, but it also must decide how to change them" (p. 185). While Foster did not refer specifically to social justice, his work informed the growing research on leadership and social justice, as he used similar theoretical underpinnings.

In examining this charge that justice and equity should be central tenets of education leadership, Bogotch (2002) concurred that "improving social justice is a challenge that rests in theory and in practice with educational leadership" (p. 139) and that "there can be no fixed or predictable meanings of social justice prior to actually engaging in educational leadership practices" (p. 153). He asserted that, regardless of specific visions of social justice, leadership is key in the ongoing struggle for greater social justice and that any educational reform effort grounded in social justice "must be deliberately and continuously reinvented and critiqued" (p. 154).

Marshall and Ward (2004) argued that many in the field of educational leadership center SJL on the equality aspects described by Rawls in that many believe that "social justice means simply ensuring that laws for individual rights are observed so that access to education services is available to children with disabilities, children who speak little or no English, children of color and other legally protected groups" (p. 534). They critique that position by arguing that SJL is certainly about equality and fulfilling laws but, in practice, it is about "creating a greater good for all individuals, [and] social justice can mean finding ways to 'fix' those with inequitable access" (p. 534).

Practically speaking, educational leadership scholars Scheurich and Skrla (2003) articulated that this means creating equitable and excellent schools:

We are aiming to create schools in which virtually all students are learning at high academic levels. We are aiming for schools in which there are no persistent patterns of differences in academic success or treatment among students grouped by race, ethnicity, culture, neighborhood, income of parents, or home language. In other words, we are aiming to foster schools that literally serve each and every student really well. (p. 2)

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Further, Marshall and Ward (2004) proposed that SJL builds upon instructional leadership and pushes educational administration to the next level. They argued that 10 years ago school administration needed to act in congruence with a focus on instructional leadership, which now needs to evolve into a "dedication to social justice" (p. 535). This means that SJL requires a major restructuring of schools. Dantley and Tillman (2006) centered SJL on restructuring and altering school policy, procedures, and day-to-day operations that "perpetuate social inequalities and marginalization due to race, class, gender, and other markers of otherness" (p. 19)

In addressing the marginalization of groups of students because of their "otherness," Frattura and Capper (2007) were emphatic that the "number one leadership characteristic" involved in SJL is that "leaders must believe in their core that students learn best when they are educated in heterogeneous educational settings, period. If the leader does not have that belief then nothing else matters"

In building upon these ways that social justice and SJL have been described, I define SJL to mean that the principals highlighted here kept at the center of their practice and vision issues of race, class, gender, disability, sexual orientation, and other historically marginalizing factors in the United States. This definition necessitates inclusive schooling practices for students with disabilities, ELLs, and other students who are traditionally segregated in schools. Frattura and Capper (2007), Sapon-Shevin (2003), and Theoharis (2007) described this essential connection between inclusion and social justice

This definition also necessitates that SJL not be seen as a fixed or static position. It requires ongoing struggle, advocacy, and reflection (Bogotch, 2002). This definition embodies a particular stance on SJL. First, it forces the concerns and needs of marginalized students to the center of the education mission. Second, it stipulates that those needs and the needs of all students be addressed in inclusive settings with attention to creating and increasing access to the core teaching and curriculum in schools for each and every student in heterogeneous settings; improving teaching and curriculum; and creating a climate that fosters a sense of belonging for all members of the school community. I am certain that all scholars and public school practitioners neither agree with this definition nor subscribe to SJL. Nevertheless, it is essential to be clear about the position and perspective I am bringing to this subject. All the principals who are a part of this book shared this perspective, in their words and in their practice

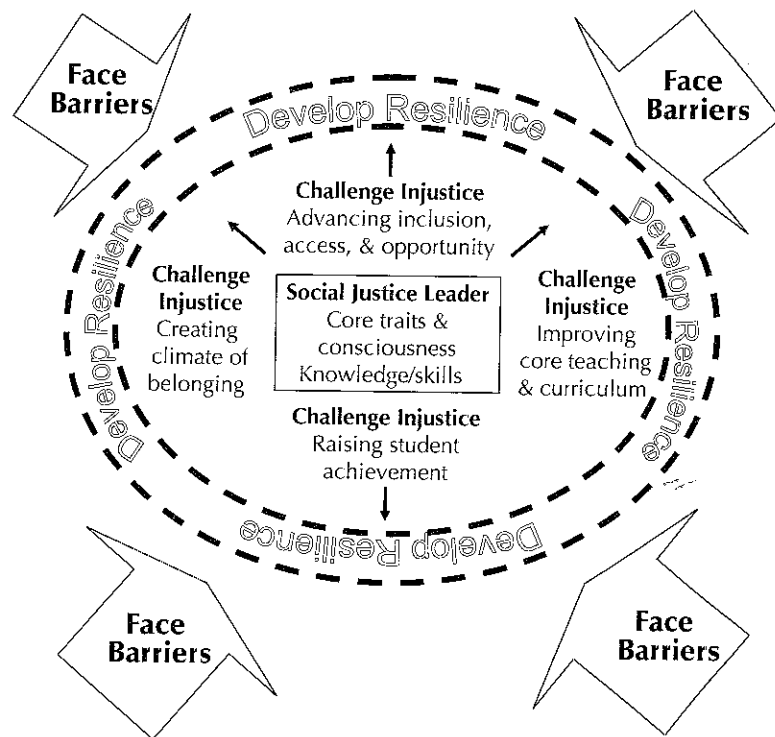
ORGANIZATION AND CONTENT OF THE BOOK

Because there are few examples of actual principals who are committed to and successful in creating more just schools (and consequently few clear visions of what such leadership would be), this book lays out three important features of SJL: a portrayal of how real school leaders seek, succeed, and continue to struggle to

create more just and equitable schools, in particular for their marginalized students; a framework for understanding social justice leadership; and seven “keys” to social justice leadership to help leaders create better schools. The first feature—the portrayal of real school leaders—is embedded in each chapter through the experiences and words of seven leaders, selected, from three states, for their commitment to equity and social justice as school leaders and their ability to change their schools to better realize that vision. The individual leaders are described in greater detail in Chapter 2. The experiences and work of these leaders were explored by means of three to eight interviews with each principal; ongoing site visits and participant observations at their schools over several years; documents from each school (contracts, meeting minutes, newsletters); relevant state and federally reported data, including those on student achievement; and meetings with the principals’ staff members and school families.

Turning to the second feature, the book provides a framework for understanding SJL (Figure 1.1). The components of the framework are discussed in detail in

Figure 1.1. Framework for social justice leadership.



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Chapters 2 through 9. I recognize that SJL is complex, messy, and not as straight-forward as a framework of this nature implies with its distinct boxes and arrows. Yet I observed common aspects of all seven principals' beliefs and actions that were critical to their foundational beliefs in equity and justice and fundamental in their leadership.

The third feature, setting forth the defining attributes of such leaders, comprises seven "keys" to SJL:

- Key 1* Acquire broad, reconceptualized consciousness/knowledge/skill base.
- Key 2* Possess core leadership traits.
- Key 3* Advance inclusion, access, and opportunity for all.
- Key 4* Improve the core learning context—both the teaching and the curriculum.
- Key 5* Create a climate of belonging.
- Key 6* Raise student achievement.
- Key 7* Sustain oneself professionally and personally.

These keys to SJL provide specific aspects of the complicated nature of how these leaders worked to close the access, opportunity, and achievement gaps. Each of the keys is embedded within specific components of the framework for SJL. These keys are not presented in numeric order throughout the book. For example, keys 3–7 are presented in Chapters 3–8, to provide a context for explaining keys 1 and 2, which is done in Chapter 9.

For the remainder of this chapter I describe the framework for SJL, component by component. As I do so, I illustrate how each of the seven keys fits within specific components of this framework. In the description of each component of the framework, I provide a brief description of the component, and then elaborate on any of the seven keys to SJL that pertains to that component. This framework and the embedded keys provide a structure for understanding principals who are committed to justice and equity, what they accomplish, the resistance they face, and how they sustain their work. I recognize that this is not the only way to understand or frame SJL, as there are multiple perspectives and stances on this work. This framework and the seven keys complement my operational definition of SJL and resonate with the words, experiences, and perspectives of these seven leaders.

A FRAMEWORK FOR SOCIAL JUSTICE LEADERSHIP

The Social Justice Leader

The leader her/himself is positioned as the center component of the framework for SJL. Chapter 2 introduces the principals that illustrate SJL as well as a starting

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place for building the center of the model: the social justice leader. Leadership is a personal endeavor and the educator who provides SJL is a central and vital aspect of this work. There are two keys in this component of the framework:

- Key 1.* Acquire broad, reconceptualized consciousness/knowledge/skill base.
- Key 2.* Possess core leadership traits

These are described and illustrated in Chapter 9. I return to the center of the model near the end of the book, as these two keys are better explained after the other five

Challenging Injustice

Moving outward from the center of the framework, the next component illustrates how SJL challenges injustice. While SJL seeks to advance an agenda more oriented toward equity and social justice, these principals framed their efforts around changing or challenging particular practices, ways of operating, and norms they encountered in their school communities. In many ways their efforts to create more just and equitable schools were enacted as they challenged injustice evident in their schools. The primary injustices they sought to challenge included structures that marginalize and segregate students and impede their learning, a deprofessionalized teaching staff and inadequate instruction, an unwelcoming school culture, and disparate and low student achievement. These principals worked to challenge the first injustice by advancing inclusion, access, and opportunity. They sought to change the second injustice by improving the core teaching and curriculum—a social justice instructional leadership stance. They addressed the third injustice by creating a climate of belonging. Finally, they confronted the fourth injustice by raising student achievement. The ways in which they challenged injustice provide four keys to SJL. Chapters 3 through 6 will move outward on the framework and focus on how these leaders challenge injustice:

- Key 3.* Advance inclusion, access, and opportunity. Chapter 3 examines how these principals confront injustice by advancing inclusion, access, and opportunity for all (Key 3). The principals encountered multiple structures in their schools that separated, segregated, and denied marginalized students access and opportunity to a rich curriculum and instruction.
- Key 4.* Improve the core learning context—both teaching and the curriculum. Chapter 4 explores how these principals improved the core learning context (Key 4) in their efforts to challenge injustice. When these principals began they found a deprofessionalized staff teaching an inadequate curriculum. These staff members were not treated as competent and capable professionals or allowed a voice in professional decision making. They found teachers who did not possess the necessary knowledge

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and skills needed to reach all students and, in some cases, did not believe in the inclusive, social justice agenda the principals brought. These leaders encountered curricular programs that were insufficient and inappropriate. As the leaders worked to change that injustice, they *improved the core learning context*.

For the purposes of this book, the *core learning context* is used to describe the daily teaching and curriculum used in the general education classrooms but used by all staff, including general education teachers, special education teachers, ELL teachers, teaching assistants, special area teacher, and so on. For example, this would be the day-to-day curriculum and instruction in a general education second-grade classroom, or the pedagogical approaches and materials used in a high school general education science class. This includes the breadth of general education opportunities, among them art, music, and physical education.

Key 5 Create a climate of belonging. All seven principals found an unwelcoming school culture that created a disconnection between school and marginalized families/community and was not warm and welcoming to students, staff, or families. Chapter 5 describes how SJL changed that injustice by working to *create a climate of belonging* (Key 5). To do this they created a warm and welcoming school climate, fostered classroom community building, reached out intentionally to the community and marginalized families, and incorporated social responsibility into the school curriculum.

Key 6 Raise student achievement. These leaders felt a driving need to raise the achievement of all students but with particular attention to the achievement/achievement gap of marginalized students (students of color, students from low-income families, students with disabilities, and students learning English). While raising student achievement was a driving vision of their work, they rejected the often-used array of "quick fixes" or "scripted programs" and relied instead on the core beliefs that promote inclusion, access, and opportunity in an improved core teaching and curriculum, within an enhanced climate of belonging and causing an important impact on student outcomes. In other words, they did not use particular new strategies to "fix" student achievement but relied on the combination of all their other efforts and strategies in their work to change the injustice of disparate and low student achievement. Chapter 6 examines this sixth key and proposes a theory of socially just school reform.

Facing Barriers

Chapter 7 moves to the outside of the framework—the *barriers these leaders faced* in their efforts to challenge injustice. This chapter details that resistance and the

impact it had on them both professionally and personally. In tackling injustice in the ways these principals did, they faced ongoing barriers that put serious constraints on SJL. These took a significant personal and professional toll on these leaders; the principals describe a substantial "cost" to doing this kind of work. While this component of the framework and Chapter 7 have no keys embedded in them, the barriers and their resulting toll are necessary components in understanding SJL.

Developing Resilience

Chapter 8 describes the last component of the model—the resilience the leaders developed:

Key 7 Sustain oneself professionally and personally. The principals developed strategies to sustain themselves professionally and personally while challenging injustice in the face of their barriers. In order to sustain their social justice agenda to increase access and inclusion to the core teaching and curriculum in schools for each and every student in heterogeneous settings, improve that core teaching and curriculum, and fundamentally create a climate of belonging for all in the school community in the face of resistance, the leaders *developed a "ring" of resilience*. This ring is composed of both professional and personal strategies and constitutes an essential key to SJL.

CONCLUSION

In sum, the SJL framework has the social justice leader at the center. It is necessary to understand the core dispositions and knowledge/skills that the principals required. It expands outward to understand the ways in which the leaders worked to challenge injustice they encountered in their schools. Additionally, the framework includes the resistance they faced in their efforts to challenge injustice and views their work to challenge injustice as in direct conflict with the barriers they faced. At that contentious intersection, the principals developed strategies to advance justice in light of the barriers. These strategies are described as "developing resilience"—the final component of the framework.

The final chapter of this book provides future directions for practicing administrators and preparation of schools leaders. It positions equity and justice as not only desirable but also possible; not as a final destination but as an ongoing struggle. The book concludes with the distinction between SJL and traditional leadership—even traditional "good" and lauded leadership—illustrating how SJL works and explaining the distinction.

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The field of "educational leadership does not have a history of being on the forefront when it comes to social justice" (Kohl as quoted in MacKinnon, 2000, p. 13). In light of this, and the recent 50th anniversary of the *Brown* decision, there is tremendous work to be done in creating schools in which each and every student thrives. It is imperative to seize this moment to commit our field, our research, and our practice to positioning educational leadership as a driving force toward social justice for marginalized students—the school leadership our children deserve.



“There Is No Social Justice Without Inclusion”: Advancing Inclusion, Access, and Opportunity for All

Inclusion is not about disability, nor is it only about schools. Inclusion is about social justice.

—Mara Sapon-Shevin, “Inclusion: A Matter of Social Justice”

AS THESE social justice leaders sought to reverse the injustice they saw and experienced in their schools, they worked to establish models of inclusion for all students. This chapter helps build an understanding of SIJL by examining how principals committed to equity and justice created better educational environments for historically marginalized students. In doing so, they eliminated pull-out and self-contained programs for diverse learners (special ed, ESL, Title I, tracked math) and created inclusive and integrated services whereby children were taught in heterogeneous groups and received services from collaborative teams of professionals within the general education classroom.

Sapon-Shevin (2003) has challenged educational leaders to see inclusion in the broader context of social justice, not only as a placement or type of programming for students with disabilities. Heeding this challenge is complex and requires for many educators a new and expansive understanding of inclusive schooling. According to Sapon-Shevin (2003) as well as Frattura and Capper (2007), the work to achieve this broader understanding of inclusion must be central to SIJL.

Numerous scholars (Frattura & Capper, 2007; Moses & Cobb, 2001; Oakes, 1985) report the damage and inequity of tracking and separate pull-out/self-contained programs for students with disabilities, ELL students, and students with other learning needs. The concept of inclusion is rooted in special education and serving students with disabilities. This complements the concept of integration, which is rooted in the civil rights struggle. While this is not a part of the Individual with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), the recent reauthorizations of this law have moved toward giving preference to inclusive placements (Huefner, 2000), and the

ability of schools to meet students' need in least restrictive environment (LRE) has grown dramatically (Villa & Thousand, 2005). However, it is important to see inclusive schooling in historical context, to examine the evolution of the special education inclusion movement and that of the education of other marginalized students.

Before 1975 and the passage of public law 94-142—The Education for All Handicapped Children's Act—students with disabilities were often denied public education or given an education in separate facilities and institutions. After PL 94-142, students with disabilities were often taught in groups of students with similar disabilities either within their home school district or in cooperatives among districts. The next step in this evolution was to bring students "home" and educate them in their home schools/districts, primarily in separate classrooms. This was followed by "mainstreaming" students with disabilities into general education for portions of the day, often without support, which led to the current and traditional notion of inclusion. The traditional understanding involves some students with disabilities being placed full time (the vast majority of their day) in general education. This often means overloading students with disabilities into a few classrooms or academic classes with one special education teacher and one or more assistant providing full-time support.

Looking across the history of the education of students of color in the United States from slavery to present day, it could be argued that students of color without disabilities have followed a similar, albeit distinct, path—from denial of education to segregated facilities to the move toward desegregation (Reese, 2005). It also could be argued that ELL students have had a similarly segregated path, and true language integration has never occurred. Despite sentiments to the contrary, real inclusion of students with and without disabilities has thus remained elusive.

The overlap of race, class, language, and disability has aided in preventing inclusive services for all students as schools have created a proliferation of programs aimed at students who struggle. This has resulted in an increased number of separate programs that have disproportionate density and numbers of students of color, students living in poverty, students learning English, and students with disabilities (Frattura & Capper, 2007).

This chapter focuses on how the social justice leader works to eliminate structures that marginalize/segregate students and impede their learning. I turn to the seven principals, introduced in Chapter 2, to illustrate one of the keys to social justice leadership:

Key 3. Advance inclusion, access, and opportunity for all

Two aspects of this chapter make it distinct from the growing body of literature on leading for social justice, the literature on school improvement, and the literature on special education and leadership. First, there is minimal literature

suggesting a connection between leadership for social justice and inclusive schooling (Frattura & Capper, 2007; Sapon-Shevin, 2003, Theoharis, 2007 are notable exceptions) and more specifically there is little theoretical or practical literature about principals committed to social justice and how they ensure inclusive schooling practices for each and every student. Second, this chapter challenges the typical notion of inclusion and provides specific leadership examples of a new understanding of inclusive services that moves beyond some students being "included" and others not to systems that are poised to meet to the academic and emotional needs of a diverse range of learners. The seven leaders discussed here moved beyond the traditional view of inclusion that assumed inclusion was a special education issue and that resulted in pushing some students with disabilities into typical classes with or without support. Moving beyond that traditional view, this chapter draws on these principals' view that inclusion is building services, collaborative teams, climate, and instructional practices that give all students access, success, and a sense of belonging in general education.

In understanding how these leaders advanced inclusion, access, and opportunity for all, it is important to note that they first articulated a vision that made an essential connection between social justice and inclusive services and also intentionally dismantled school structures that marginalized, segregated, and impeded achievement. This chapter begins with how the principals articulated the connection between social justice and inclusion and then describes the ways in which they created more inclusive schools for their marginalized students.

THE CONNECTION BETWEEN INCLUSION AND SOCIAL JUSTICE

In discussing their efforts to dismantle these excluding structures, the principals were clear about the connection they felt between social justice and inclusive services for traditionally marginalized students. The ways in which they articulated this connection provided insight on moving beyond the traditional view of inclusion. Principal Meg stated:

We cannot pretend that our Black, Brown and poor kids are getting what they deserve when we remove them from the regular classroom. These students need more, not separate . . . In removing the same students over and over we make them marginal community members. . . . Even with our best intentions to provide special programs for special ed, ESL, and Title I, these students are further segregated and receive a lesser educational experiences. . . . These students have the right to be in the regular classroom with the most skilled people in the school, their classroom teachers. . . . there is no social justice without inclusion

Principal Natalie echoed this sentiment:

When we remove students from their peers, time and time again the students who are taught in special programs receive watered-down academics. Also, and perhaps more importantly, socially we teach kids that separate is OK, and they do not need to work on getting along. The more we separate kids the less they learn to work together, understand each other, and get along. There is not equity or any greater good in those messages.

Principal Tracy shared a similar perspective:

Look at who is in the programs that remove students from the regular classroom. There is a high percentage of students of color and low-income students in special ed, in the remedial reading program, in ESL. Where is the justice in the fact that the only kids who have consistent uninterrupted access to the core curriculum are White and predominantly middle class? We cannot in good conscience say that these pullout and separate programs are better than the regular core and there is no evidence that these pullout and separate programs result in achievement. We are continuing to relegate the same students to the back of the education bus.

These principals are clear that in their leadership, they make a necessary connection between creating inclusive schools and social justice. While there are many educators who believe in the idea of inclusion, these leaders saw it as a driving/guiding philosophy for all their leadership. This connection drove them to take action in eliminating what they saw as unjust structures.

STRATEGIES THAT ADVANCED INCLUSION, ACCESS, AND OPPORTUNITY FOR ALL

In getting rid of these structures the principals evoked four strategies to advance their vision of a more inclusive and socially just school: eliminate pullout/separate programs, increase academic rigor and access to opportunities, increase student learning time, and increase accountability systems for the achievement of all students. The principals placed the greatest urgency on the first strategy—eliminate pullout/segregated programs. Thus, this strategy will be discussed first and in the greatest depth.

Eliminate Pullout and Separate Programs

The first strategy that these principals used to change structures that marginalize/segregate students and impede their achievement involved restructuring the school

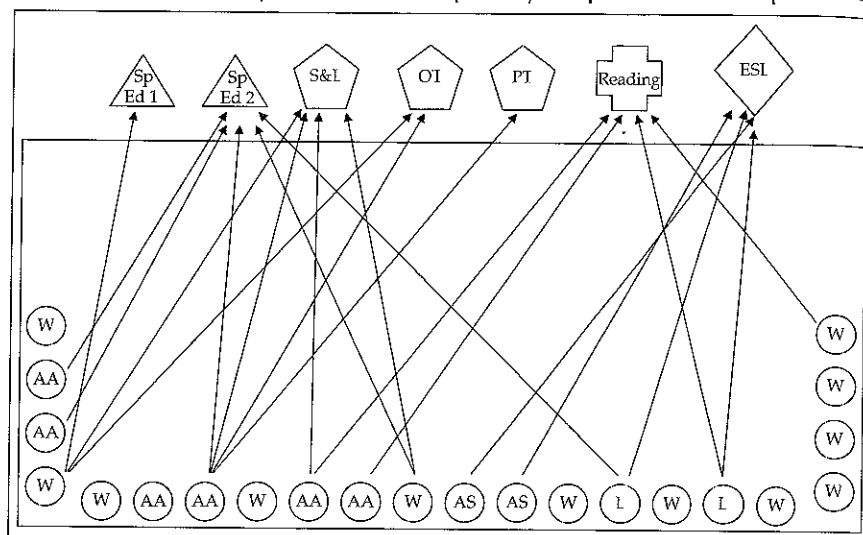
to eliminate pullout/separate programs. This restructuring meant that they moved to inclusive special education services, changed to inclusive ELL programming, detracked the math program, or did a combination of these. Teaching students in heterogeneous groups within the regular classroom was a critical philosophical decision made by these principals.

Principal Tracy. Principal Tracy worked with his staff to eliminate pullout and self-contained special education and ELL programs at his elementary school. The separate programs were replaced by "inclusive services provided within the context of the regular classroom through team planning and team teaching between special education/ELL teachers and general education teachers."

Before the restructuring, "80% of students receiving special education services were removed from their classrooms for instruction in resource rooms or self-contained special education classes." This instruction took place only with other students with special education labels. Likewise, before restructuring, "100% of ELL services provided to students also took place away from the regular classroom in a separate resource room without connections to their classroom or the general education curriculum." In examining the previous service plans with the staff, Principal Tracy showed that the daily schedule for the students with the most need was the most fragmented. "Students of color were being taken from their regular classrooms for ELL, special education services, and remedial reading, creating segregation throughout the school. For the most part, only the White students were not being pulled out of the classroom." Principal Tracy re-created a visual describing this phenomenon.

Figure 3.1 represents an elementary classroom and how different programs in Principal Tracy's school affected that classroom. The circles at the bottom represent the students in the classroom and are labeled to identify their race. The shapes at the top represent various staff members working in separate programs; the programs are labeled inside the shapes. Each shape represents an individual staff member; thus there are two special education triangles, as there were two separate special education teachers who worked with children in that class. The lines depict which students were removed from their classroom to go to which programs.

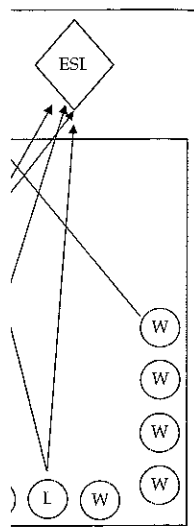
Figure 3.1 also shows which students by race received which pullout programs prior to Principal Tracy's restructuring. Tracy pointed out that some students were removed for different programs multiple times, creating a "very disrupted schedule" for these students and a "very disrupted classroom" for all. He also drew attention to the fact that with only one exception the only students who were never pulled out were White. "Clearly there were racist implications that needed to be examined and changed in how we were serving our kids . . . and with all those different people pulling kids out and all those kids coming and going, some kids multiple times a day, look at how impossible it would be to have any continuity of learning time or even extended time for reading or a block of time for projects, for the class as a whole but even more so for our marginalized kids."

Figure 3.1. Elementary classroom disrupted by the pullout services provided

Note: Shapes on top represent staff members and their corresponding pullout programs: Sp Ed = Special ed teacher, S&L = Speech & language therapist, OT = Occupational therapist, PT = Physical therapist, Reading = Title I reading teacher, ESL = English as a Second Language teacher. Circles represent students and are labeled by the student's race/ethnicity: AA = African American, AS = Asian, L = Latino, W = white.

He also outlined the staffing patterns for the staff and showed that some special education teachers were working with seven or eight classroom teachers and the ESL teachers worked with about 14 teachers each. "This system prevented any meaningful teaming or collaboration around meeting the needs of students inclusively within the regular classroom." Figure 3.2 illustrates the special education service delivery for this school prior to the inclusive restructuring and Figure 3.3 illustrates the ESL service delivery prior to restructuring. In both Figures 3.2 and 3.3, the rectangles around the edge represent the general education classrooms, the ovals in the middle represent the various service providers in either special education or ESL, and the lines represent pulling students from their classroom to work with the service providers. In Figure 3.2, consider how some students are removed from their class, a few are included, and some have no access to the general education classroom. Also, consider the sheer number of classrooms from which some of the special education teachers were pulling students, the demands involved to connect with all those classroom teachers, and the impossibility of this service plan to foster collaboration between staff members as well as meaningful connections between students and the general curriculum. In Figure 3.3, examine the number of classrooms from which the ESL teachers were pull-

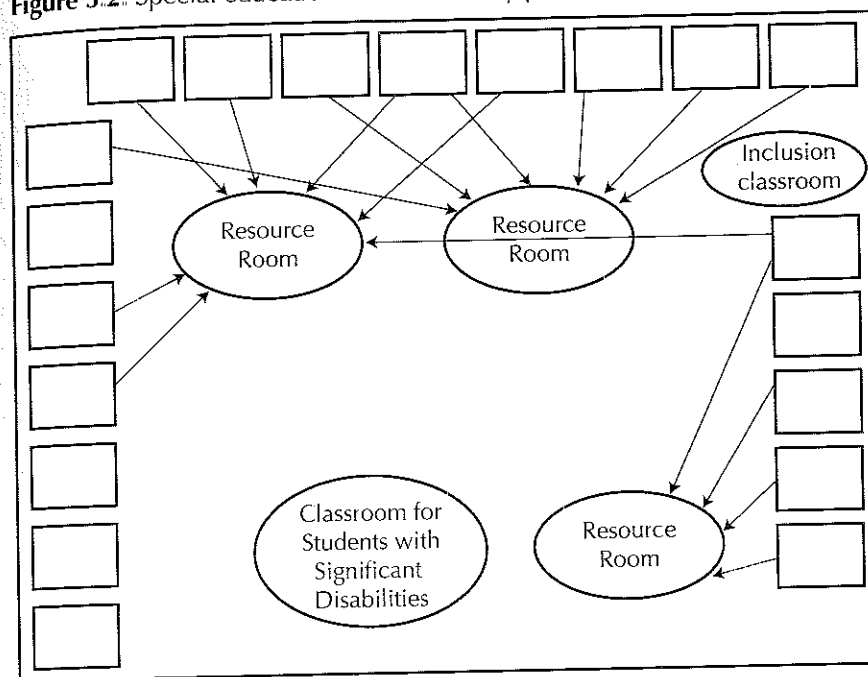
services provided:



Legend: Sp Ed = Special Education
PT = Physical therapist
OT = Occupational therapist
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Figure 3.2. Special education service delivery prior to inclusive restructuring

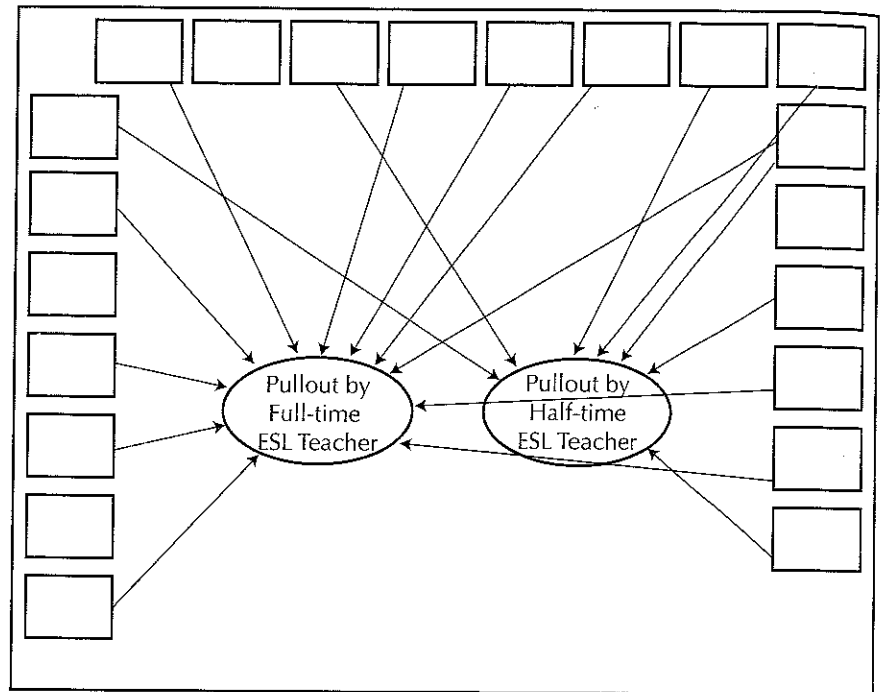


Notes: Rectangles = elementary general education classrooms. Resource rooms are used by special education teachers, who pull students from their general education classrooms. An inclusion classroom is one with 20 general education students and 10 special education students in which a general education teacher team teaches with a special education teacher. A classroom for students with significant disabilities is a self-contained special education classroom where all K-5 students who have significant disabilities receive their instruction and spend the majority of their school day.

ing students. In both cases, despite state and federal mandates that ESL and special education instruction be tied to the general education curriculum, the very nature of these service models made it impossible for the specialist to collaborate with classroom teachers and to make serious connections between the special programs (special education and ELL) and the general education curriculum.

Principal Tracy led a restructuring of the school to "create teams of teachers that met together to jointly take responsibility for the needs of all their students inside the classrooms. Special education teachers, classrooms teachers, and ELL teachers now work together to both plan and deliver their lessons." For example, teams at his school were configured in the following way: "two third-grade general education teachers, one special education teacher, and one assistant or two fourth-grade general education teachers and one ELL teacher." After the restructuring,

Figure 3.3. English Language Learner service delivery prior to inclusive restructuring.



Notes: Rectangles = elementary general education classrooms Pullout = ESL teacher taking ELL students to a ESL resource room to provide instruction

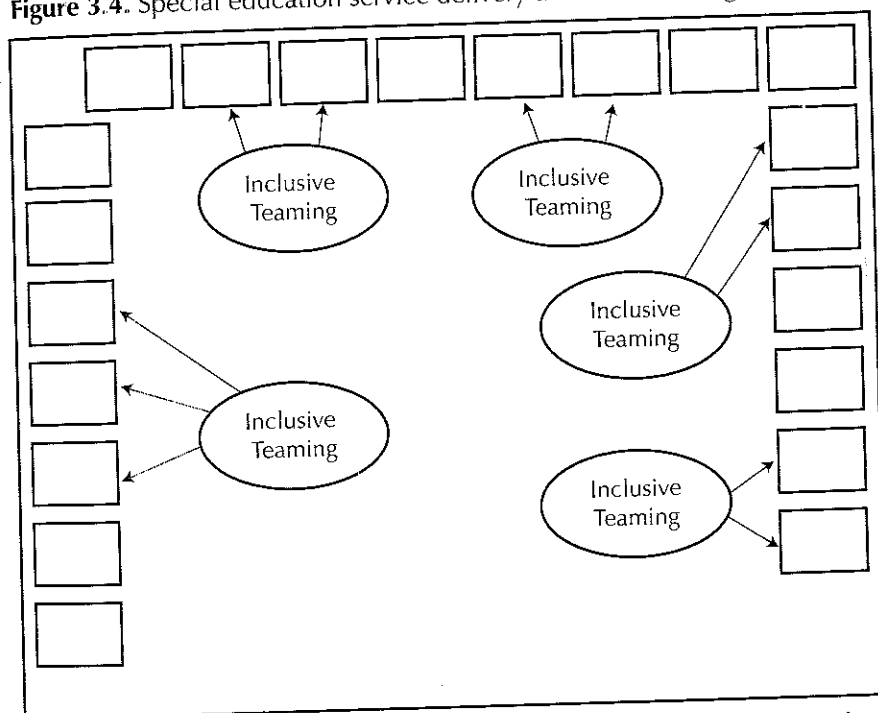
95% of the students with special education needs received inclusive services and 100% of ESL services were provided inclusively. There were *no* self-contained special education rooms, no special education or ELL resource teachers who pulled kids out of their classroom to teach them. We had teams of specialists and general education teachers that worked together to address *all*, and I mean *each and every*, need present.

After the restructuring, teams were created across the school of general education teachers and specialists (special education and ESL teachers), as Principal Tracy described. The expectation was that the teams assumed collective responsibility for all students, as all human resources in the school were working on these teams, so there were no other separate programs to which to “send” struggling students. Further, the expectations were that all students received the education they needed through modifying, differentiating, and adapting curriculum and instruction—all

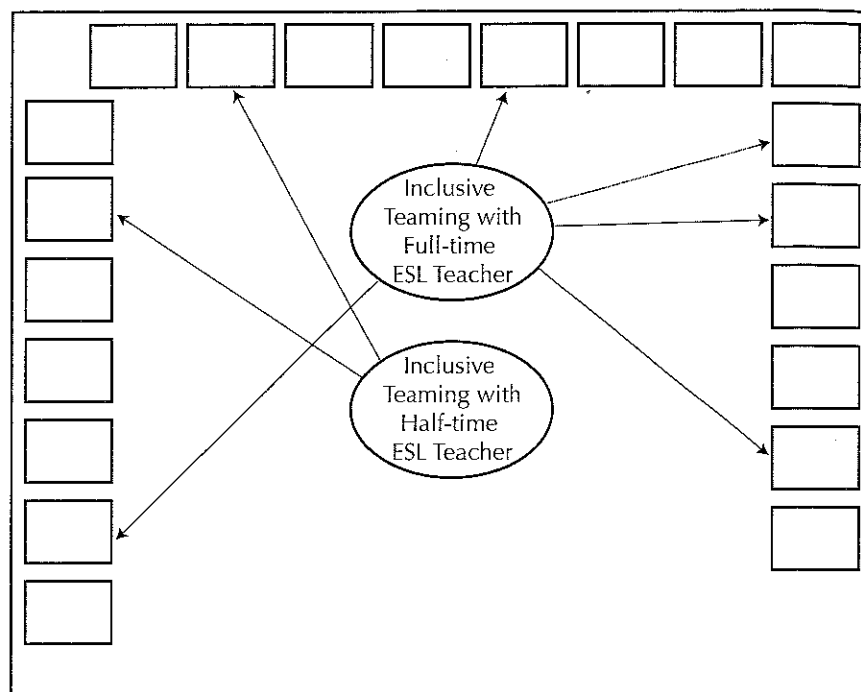
students would participate in the general education curriculum with their peers. Principal Tracy pointed out that *all* meant *all*—students with severe disabilities, cognitive disabilities, autism, emotional disabilities, or minor learning disabilities and every other student in the school. This involved teams approaching teaching in new ways by letting go of old roles (general education teacher having sole responsibility of the curriculum and specialist having responsibility for students with special needs) and sharing ownership of all students and the curriculum. Moving in this direction required weekly co-planning and daily co-teaching and communication. This was built into the weekly schedule and was an expectation that necessitated teachers' changing how they worked. Initially, this co-planning felt like more work, as the teachers were used to planning alone, but as they evolved and teams developed, that feeling changed.

Figure 3.4 represents the service delivery model for special education after the restructuring; Figure 3.5 represents the service delivery for ESL. In examin-

Figure 3.4. Special education service delivery after restructuring



Notes: Rectangles = elementary general education classrooms. Ovals = special education teachers. Inclusive teaming = a special education teacher teaming with a general education teacher to meet the range of student needs within the classroom. Each special education teacher usually teams with two or three classroom teachers. Each team has one paraprofessional assigned as well.

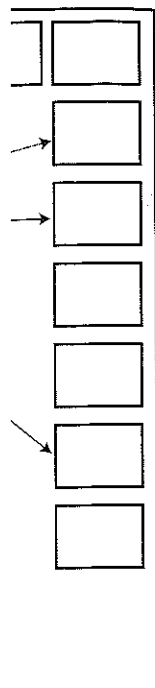
Figure 3.5. English Language Learner service delivery after restructuring

Notes: Rectangles = elementary general education classrooms. Inclusive teaming = a general education teacher and an ESL teacher collaborating and coteaching.

ing these figures, consider that students are no longer being pulled out to receive services and the specialists are working with significantly reduced numbers of classrooms. This model made it possible to expect collaboration within the general education classroom and curriculum because each specialist was paired with a smaller, manageable number of general education teachers.

This change in service delivery meant that special education assistants and bilingual resource assistants also provided inclusive programming for students. In addition, all talented and gifted as well as Title I reading resources were used to enhance the classroom learning inclusively through differentiation for students who needed diverse and extra challenges. The school went from having a segregated, pullout model to enacting a collaborative and inclusive model during Principal Tracy's tenure. While Tracy argued that creating a more inclusive school was a social justice end in and of itself, he also felt that these inclusive changes helped raise student achievement. These positive changes in student achievement are discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

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Principal Meg. Principal Meg discussed her school's multiyear process to eliminate separate and pullout instructional programs. She recalled that when she came to this elementary school she spent time learning about the school, the staff, and the services. "During that learning process," she said, "I started really noticing how students who were in poverty or students in English as a Second Language or students of color in general were always being segregated from the regular education curriculum." She continued, "The traffic patterns were such that the Black kids go to Title I, the Brown kids go to ESL, the White kids are in the classroom, and the kids of color who qualify for more than one special program only get access to one because there wasn't enough time in the day to access what they were entitled to."

While questioning these patterns with her staff, Meg undertook a schoolwide needs assessment that involved staff and parents working together to identify areas of improvement. A call for smaller classes had come from all areas of the school improvement process; Principal Meg took that call for smaller classes, combined it with eliminating the segregated/pullout program at her school, and developed an inclusive model that resulted in using all her teacher allocations originally targeted for pullout special services (ESL teachers, Title I teachers, talented and gifted resource teachers, and discretionary allocation) to lower class size. The motivation was not only to lower class size, but also to get "more equity of time on task for kids, the least amount of transition for students, more research-based best practice, like eliminating pullout, and professional development for teachers to work with diverse populations of kids." A commitment to "using the knowledge and skills [of the classroom teachers] to try to provide a coherent instructional organized school day for the child who was the most needy" drove this restructuring.

Her effort resulted in inclusive service delivery whereby teachers learned the skills to meet the needs of all students in the classroom. There were no longer pullout ESL programs. Instead classroom teachers received training to gain dual certification in general elementary and ESL. There were no longer pullout Title I, or programs funded by talented/gifted and other local resources. Instead, classroom teachers had fewer students and provided all the literacy and other instruction for every child in their classroom. Special education services were already inclusive and continued to be provided collaboratively in the general classroom. Class size dropped from approximately 23 students in each classroom to 15, with no separate pullout programs. Principal Meg led these changes because it was "the best way to serve our students."

Principal Dale. Principal Dale relayed similar situations at his middle school. He spoke of two major initiatives to eliminate pullout and segregated programs. The first centered on the detracking of the math program. In his eliminating a tracked-by-ability math program, Principal Dale's thinking was that the previous lower-track and remedial-level classes for math were "populated by poor and

minority students." He said, "We're trying to provide equity" by shifting to heterogeneously grouped math instruction.

Principal Dale's second initiative eliminated pullout and segregated programs "to pretty much fully include special education students into the curriculum. We have about 20 to 25% of our kids from special ed. They spend virtually all of their time in a regular education classroom now." This shift toward inclusive services encompassed students with all categories of disabilities, from mild to very complicated to significant behavioral challenges. The new configuration replaced the former service delivery system whereby instruction for the students with special education labels took place only in groups of students with special education labels, outside the regular education classrooms, in resource rooms or in special education classrooms.

The works of many scholars (Frattura & Capper, 2007; Moses & Cobb, 2001; Oakes, 1985) concur with the seven principals' work in eliminating pullout, segregated, and tracked programs. The purposeful connection these administrators made between inclusive service decisions and social justice aims makes an important contribution to understanding effective school leadership. Making this connection and then eliminating pullout and segregated programs thus becomes a critical component of the work of school leaders.

Increase Academic Rigor and Access to Opportunities

The second strategy these principals used to eliminate structures that marginalize/segregate students and impede the latter's achievement involved increasing academic rigor in all students' classes, specifically for marginalized students, and providing access to broader school opportunities for marginalized students. Principal Natalie described the changes at her high school: "We moved from offering courses that only matched what teachers wanted to and were used to teaching, to a schoolwide process that looked at offering what any student would need to get into college." She saw a change in course offerings and an increase in rigor across all courses: "We have more academic rigor infused into the curriculum... and we are offering eight advanced level classes that were never offered before." She also talked about staff attitudes and how staff were used to having lower expectations about course content, and she noted that with a push for broader offerings she also pushed for higher expectations within the courses: "We used to just want kids to feel good about school, but now they feel good and we have 'big academics'."

In his school, Principal Scott faced a different dilemma: Marginalized students were being forced out of programs such as fine arts. While this is not typically interpreted as academic rigor, the notion that these leaders were not compromising the breath of programming for marginalized students resonates with their commitment to access and broadly define rigor. Principal Scott discussed his re-

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structuring of the middle school schedule so "all students had greater access to fine arts." He explained:

Students often had to make the choice between [extra help in math] and taking band. This is a huge problem. . . . You see, my rich kids, many of them have music experiences outside of school, but for my poor students they need to have opportunities like band and the arts in school. They should not have to make the choice between math and music . . . so we had to change the way we scheduled students. It wasn't easy, but it was possible.

Principal Scott demonstrated how the lens of equity led to an examination of the broader school schedule and then modification of how the schedule was constructed. In his example, bringing this lens to the approach of scheduling helped create more access to arts across all student populations and thus a more equitable school program.

Principal Dale discussed detracking middle school math as an essential way to approach providing both rigor and greater opportunities. Not only does detracking increase inclusion for some students into the general education curriculum.

[In addition, detracked math classes] give all kids access to higher-quality curriculum because most of the remedial classes don't work The curriculum is not challenging . . . [Now], essentially, students are exposed to a broader base of mathematical work, moving away from what I would view as sort of arithmetic orientation, and giving kids opportunities to engage in more higher-level thinking.

He positioned increasing rigor and opportunities as a major driving force behind the changes he led to detrack math.

Principal Tracy echoed Principal Dale's beliefs about creating the inclusive services at his school that are described in the previous section on eliminating pullout and segregated programs. Tracy explained:

What typically happens in separate programs like special ed, ESL, remedial reading programs, and others is that students do not have meaningful engagement with the general education core curriculum so it is no wonder these students fall and stay behind. School improvement for diverse learners is about giving all kids access to that core general education curriculum and then focusing all our efforts on making that core curriculum and instruction as good as possible. . . . Inclusion in this light is really about access and committing to all students their right to the core curriculum.

At both Principal Dale and Principal Tracy's schools, student achievement rose at the same time of implementation of inclusive/detracked classes. For example, students in special education improved from 13% reading at grade level to 60%, and all students improved from 50% at grade level to 86% at Principal Tracy's school. All the changes in achievement are discussed in detail in Chapter 6.

Principal Tracy also changed the structure of the elementary after-school program enrollment to give marginalized students greater access to important opportunities usually afforded to more privileged families who typically signed up early and filled the spots:

The first-come-first-served traditional method of enrollment into our after-school programs continually excluded our students with the greatest needs. We created a lottery where we would take traditional enrollment forms but where we could also recruit the students who historically had been left out. So in our new system our most needy students had the same chance or better in enrollment as anyone else's. We also saved spots for students who needed the programs. And then when we talked with parents, I had a spot and could put them in the program at my discretion. . . . The programs were balanced; they weren't all high-need students and they weren't all privileged students. Each program was diverse and reflected the actual percentages of our school community. I didn't want one more example of how schools favor the White middle-class families.

Principal Tracy's example of changes in enrollment procedures transformed structures that denied marginalized students access to a wealth of opportunities.

This type of balanced and demographically representative enrollment is what Frattura and Capper (2007) called for in planning and developing all school services. Lyman and Villani (2002) suggested that students living in poverty are often given lower-quality programs, accompanied by lower expectations for their achievement. They argued against the belief that "schools can never overcome poverty's impact, that we should just settle for lesser learning, for lower academic achievement in high poverty schools" (p. 275). Their conclusion was consistent with the description here, in that these principals increased both rigor of academics and access to a wider breadth of opportunities. By doing so, they successfully worked to dismantle the "two-tier system" (Lyman & Villani, 2002, p. 251) that exists for marginalized students. Likewise, Scheurich (1998) found that the principals in the schools he studied also led their schools to develop high achievement "not by lowering expectations" but "by reconceptualizing what is possible for all children and by refusing any other result" (p. 461). His findings echoed the perspectives of the principals in this book in that holding high expectations for achievement requires a commitment to academic rigor for every student.

Increase Student-Learning Time

The third strategy that these principals used to change school structures to advance access and opportunity for all was increasing students' learning time. This took diverse forms, from reducing transitions during the school day to increasing attendance, from reducing out-of-school discipline to reducing dropouts. The principals saw these actions as central to increasing learning for their most marginalized students.

Principal Meg relayed a story about their elementary school restructuring. After eliminating the school's pullout services for ELL, Title I, and gifted and talented, she described what occurred:

The kids had more continuity in their day; they had more time on task. All those transitions with students coming and going, all this time where students were walking to their "pullout" programs, all of those disruptions were eliminated. So basically they were getting more instruction while they were in school.

Meg believed that there were many benefits to eliminating the pullout services; one was that students receiving special services did not have so much downtime, so much wasted time walking to and from pullout classrooms, and so much disrupted time trying to transition between environments, which frequently led to behavior issues and more missed learning time.

Principal Dale sought to increase middle school student-learning time in two ways. First, he discussed the relationship he saw between learning time increasing as suspensions decreased. "Over the 7 years I have been here, we have had a 20% to 30% reduction in suspensions," Principal Dale stated that "this data means" that some of his "most needy students remained in school more days instead of being sent home." This happened because

we developed relationships with kids, but additionally I changed the way discipline was handled and viewed. We moved from a "send the disruptive kids out of class and send them home" model to a much more relationship-based, process-oriented model. We needed to move away from a criminalization of our students to learning to see behavior as communication.

The second way he saw learning time increase was through a small but steady increase in the daily attendance rate of the students. "We worked to connect with our students, get our students engaged in class, and create classes where they felt they belonged and where they were challenged." Principal Dale went on, "The average daily attendance rate for our school 5 years ago was about 90% . . . and

[now it has steadily risen] to 94%." Over the course of a school year a 4% increase means being in school, on average, 6 to 10 more days in school per student

These principals' experiences suggested that an important aspect of socially just schools was a commitment to provide each child the right to the maximum amount of instructional time. The literature on leadership for social justice does not focus specifically on increasing the amount of learning time. However, the literature on literacy (Au, Carroll, & Scheu, 1997; Cunningham & Allington, 1994; Taylor, Pearson, Clark, & Walpole, 1999) and science and math (Burns, 1999; Moses & Cobb, 2001; Schmidt, 1997) has demonstrated this need for ample time during the school day for students to learn and apply skills. Hart and Bredeson (1996) argued that to positively influence student achievement, principals need to protect, maintain, and champion teaching and learning time. By increasing the learning time in their schools for marginalized students, these principals put into practice what the literature described as essential for high levels of student learning.

Increase Accountability for the Achievement of All Students

The fourth strategy the principals evoked to change unjust structures involved collecting and analyzing data to understand the academic performance of every student. Principal Natalie discussed the state of accountability and collection of information when she arrived at her high school as principal:

Data wasn't kept before I got here . . . Now we keep all kinds of data that we use to inform our decision making . . . [We keep] the percentage [of students] who have been accepted to and plan on attending postsecondary . . . the percent of special education students . . . composite ACT scores . . . suspension data . . . AOD data . . . actual track of attendance data and achievement data

Principal Natalie took an additional approach to accountability in terms of student achievement. Until she became principal, the school "had never done a graduate survey. . . . I did a graduate survey and we got a lot of information from our graduates." She initiated an ongoing survey of their graduates, compiled this data, and used the information to drive planning for academic course offerings as well as improving the climate. "We needed to be more accountable to our students and their future after they leave us. Our graduate survey gives us information about areas of strength and areas needing change." Principal Natalie discussed the change that came from these surveys:

Students indicated they felt connected to some of their teachers but not challenged enough and a number of students who were in college shared they did not have the same college preparation classes that their peers in

college did. So, this really helped our whole staff see the importance of adding more rigor and more college-levels courses for all of our students

Principal Scott used his middle school achievement data to inform numerous conversations throughout the school. One example he cited entailed using data during difficult conversations with staff members. Before one such conversation, Principal Scott

compiled a variety of data. I spoke with the teacher and brought up the fact that this teacher failed the most African American students in the entire school district. I had the data to show this, so we were able to have serious conversations about this serious issue.

Principal Scott stated that he felt using these data helped ground this and other important conversations in the achievement of marginalized students.

Principal Meg explained that when she arrived at her elementary school, there were no documentation or achievement records for any of the students learning English. When she discussed if ELL students were achieving at grade level, she stated:

Well, we had no idea, if they were at grade level. It's sort of irrelevant because we didn't pay attention. So my guess would be that they weren't at grade level. . . . The biggest disparity was they weren't even counted or thought of like the rest of the kids at school. They're treated so separately and separate isn't equal so they totally get left out and so we'll say we're delivering these special service, but we're not going to pay attention to whether or not they're effective. Who monitors this? Nobody is accountable. When we started we had no data on our ELL kids.

Principal Meg explained that now every child at her school has informal portfolios and achievement data recorded at least three times a year. Local teachers designed the assessments, aligned them with state and local standards, and administered them individually or in small groups. A wealth of information came from the assessments and this information allowed the teachers to individualize their curriculum and design instruction tailored to the needs of all of their students.

These principals increased the level of monitoring of student achievement. While accountability is presently a politically charged concept and there is a caricature that people opposed to high-stakes testing deplore accountability, these principals present a different view. They were very pro-accountability and very pro-data. They used accountability not punitively but in a formative way. They demonstrated a commitment to understand the realities of their school and used data to help build that understanding for their teachers as well as for themselves.

Their desire to have and use data allowed them to lead discussions and planning around specific realities of their students, in particular their neediest students. The literature on leading for social justice complements this reality.

Riester, Pursch, and Skrla (2002) described how the principals and teachers in their study raised student achievement by using data:

On-going data collection was a way to guide and inform instruction . . . In these schools, data collection included the process of continually reviewing ongoing records of students' academic growth. The data took many forms . . . Thus data served a multitude of purposes. (p. 298)

Scheurich (1998) noted that the principals and staffs he studied shared this ongoing commitment to using data. Scheurich and Skrla (2003) argued that data are

highly useful for developing equitable and excellent schools . . . We need a way to mark the student learning that we either are or are not accomplishing. In addition, when we have the kind of inequities by specific student groups, like racial groups, that we currently have, we need a way to mark those differences and to mark the erasure of those differences. (pp. 64-65)

Skrla, Scheurich, Garcia, and Nolly (2004) also describe the importance and use of data to understand where inequities in teacher quality, programs, and achievement exist. There were parallels between the principals they studied and the principals in this book in that they all shared a commitment to collect and use data to help improve the learning and climate of the schools in a more equitable fashion.

CONCLUSION

These seven principals used four strategies to eliminate unjust structures that impeded the achievement of all students. While the principals highlighted the first strategy of eliminating pullout/segregated programs as a necessary starting place, they were focused on advancing inclusion and access by using all four strategies. Combining them created structural improvements that made their schools more just and contributed to improved student achievement. They eliminated pullout/segregated programs, increased the rigor of academic classes and access to these opportunities, increased student learning time, and increased accountability for the achievement of all students. These changes are clearly distinct from what occurs in traditional school improvement, which typically focuses on adding new remedial or intervention programs or creates a new pre-special education referral system. These seven principals led their schools to change historically entrenched structures that brought marginalized students into more rigorous academic general education classrooms with support, eliminated pullout and separate programs,

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parate programs,

and increased access to opportunities outside traditional academic classes. Enacting these strategies had significant impact on marginalized students and their learning and improved the overall academic environment at all these schools.

The conclusion of this chapter will focus on the inclusive structures that the principals created and used as they eliminated pullout and segregated programs. The principals discussed here provided ideas about what the next generation of inclusion and integrated services will look like. Certainly, the placement of all students in heterogeneous classrooms where teams of educators collaboratively provide services for all students moves beyond the traditional model of inclusion of some students with disabilities to an approach that creates inclusive schools for all students. The examples provided by Principals Dale and Tracy whereby general educators and specialists co-plan, co-teach, and take joint responsibility for all students together articulate this next generation of inclusion.

Principal Meg pushes beyond even Principals Tracy and Dale with the restructuring of ELL services. This glimpse further down the inclusive and inherently socially just continuum relies on multiply certified educators with general education and specialist knowledge and skills who take sole responsibility for the education of a smaller number of students. Principal Meg pushes beyond restructuring to blur the distinction between general educator and specialist, positions responsibility for all forms of learning within the general classroom, and creates small communities of students so that teachers can actually reach each pupil. Regardless of their approach, the seven principals all felt and took responsibility for students with varying special needs—students in special education and ELL students. In contrast with many school leaders, these principals did not assume it was the special education director's role to ensure that students with disabilities got the appropriate education; they felt it was theirs. Nor did they relinquish the knowledge and authority about students with disabilities to the special education teachers; they knew all the students with disabilities in their schools and knew who was serving those students, and regardless of the district policies that brought students with special needs into their schools, these principals saw these traditionally marginalized students as equal to any other student in their school. The same outlook held true for ELL students. The principals provided specific approaches and broad philosophical concepts that can serve as a guide in developing more inclusive—meaning socially just—services for all learners.

In examining both the practices and success of these new models of inclusive services for all students, there are strategies and lessons to be learned that may benefit all students and, in particular, marginalized students, thereby demonstrating that social justice and inclusion are inherently linked. The aim of this leadership must be understood not as reaching a final destination of social justice, but as a continual struggle and process of striving for more inclusive and more socially just practices. These principals helped to define new evolutions of integrated/inclusive services that provide effective education for all students.